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REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Social Foundations of Education

Reviews the literature for the three-year period since the issuance of Volume XIII, No. 1, February 1943.

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FOREWORD

This is the fourth issue of the REVIEW to be given to the social backgrounds of education. In some respects the Committee has departed radically from the approach and emphasis of preceding committees in this field. The chapter on problems of intercultural relations is primarily a review of the trends of opinion found in the literature of this field. It is included here because of the importance of the subject at this time and with the hope that it will stimulate research and be useful to a wide circle of readers. A later issue of the sixth cycle will review the actual research in intercultural education.

This issue begins a new cycle of the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. Back of it is the experience of fifteen years. Ahead is the possibility of making the REVIEW a more potent influence for improving educational research.

The REVIEW was founded on sound principles. It has succeeded reasonably well in cataloging, organizing, and recording the trends in educational research. It has not yet achieved in sufficient measure the role set by its original sponsors as an instrument for improving research in education.

The REVIEW is the official organ of the American Educational Research Association. It reviews and should appraise the published research of the members of the Association. Its pages, for the most part, are written and edited by members of the Association. Only those who have contributed under the pressures of these past four years can quite know how much the preparation of the REVIEW has been a labor of love. But now the war is ended. As never before those engaged in educational research will determine the frontiers of education. It is important that the REVIEW shall be an adequate expression of the role of research in education.

This issue (on inside back cover) carries the titles and the names of committee chairmen for the next five numbers of the REVIEW. The June issue will carry the names of committee chairmen for the remaining numbers of the sixth cycle. Every member of the Association can help by making certain that his published research is brought to the attention of the appropriate committee chairman. The first objective of the REVIEW is adequate coverage.

Nearly one hundred members of the Association are being asked to contribute to the preparation of this cycle of the REVIEW. Now that the war effort is ended, it is hoped that every member invited to cooperate will do so. Thru such cooperative effort, we can achieve greatly. To this end the Editorial Board has revised the *Manual for Committee Chairmen* and the *Instructions to Contributors*. In this cycle of the REVIEW, let us begin to set the standards for the educational research that is needed in this new age.

J. CAYCE MORRISON
Chairman, Editorial Board

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INTRODUCTION

IN ORGANIZING the content of this issue on the social foundations of education the Committee found no ready and well-established pattern to follow. The preceding cycles have differed from each other and from the present one in significant ways. This is probably inevitable so long as the semantic referents of "social" and "foundations" are no better defined than they are at present. Moreover, society is at present in flux to an extent rarely if ever equaled in history. The ever accelerating technological revolution and the attendant social problems that beset us need no amplification here.

Our attempt has been to organize the content of this cycle in terms of current and long-time problems. Any possible organization would doubtless be found in this area to show at least some overlapping in the various chapters. Chapter VI, "The Community and the School," for example, will also be touched upon in some of the problems discussed in Chapter III, "Problems of Intercultural Education" and in Chapter VII, "The Family, Education, and Child Adjustment." This overlapping is, indeed, an index of the interrelatedness of the problems.

Obviously there are areas that have been slighted or even entirely omitted which should have been included. The chairman at least can conceive of a chapter devoted to materials drawn from cultural anthropology. A chapter on economic trends as related to education might well have been included. Again, certain of the chapters will prove disappointing to those who look for a rich and matured "scientific" literature in the more rigorous sense of that term. Chapters II, III, and VIII ("Influence of Science and Technology on Education," "Problems of Intercultural Education," "Interrelations of Education and Democracy") are rather highly programmatic and show a dearth of scientific evidence bearing on the problems discussed in these chapters. Nevertheless the Committee was convinced that these are areas that need to be kept before educators as areas which urgently require and would richly repay more systematic efforts at scientific exploration including particularly the experimental method.

It is with genuine gratification that I express my appreciation and my pleasure in working with those whose contributions made this issue possible.

H. H. REMMERS, *Chairman*
Committee on Social Foundations of Education

CHAPTER I

Nonschool Education outside the Home

EARLE U. RUGG

Some years ago the writer (159) pointed out that the great problem before American educators was the proper integration of school and nonschool experiences. He indicated that life outside the school is the primary source of an educational program and that study of the influence of nonschool education is crucial to the broad problem of providing effective living for all Americans. In the February 1937 issue of the Review the writer (161) was privileged to summarize for the first time the literature of the field of nonschool education. When asked to undertake a summary of similar research for the February 1946 number, he checked all previous issues for the past nine years. He found thirty-six summaries of various topics related to the theme of this issue. Thus, this Review constantly reveals the close interdependence of the social, cultural, and psychological data applicable to education in and out of school.

Together with the above source the student of educational sociology should read the excellent summary articles pertinent to this field in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (123). It has reported data up to 1941 and each main section has presented an excellent bibliography of important studies.

Relating Schools to Life

For several decades pioneer sociologists and curriculum students have worked to promote a functional program of education in and out of school on the major hypothesis that life outside the school is the crucial source of experiences to be learned. Dewey for forty years, and Bobbitt, Kilpatrick, Horn, Harold Rugg, and Counts for thirty years have dealt with it. More recently other workers and many agencies have experimented with this hypothesis. Representative of experiments in the field are those of Maurice Seay and Harold Clark in Kentucky; the Greenville County (South Carolina) adult education experiment; the W. K. Kellogg project in Michigan; social and educational reconstruction in the Tennessee Valley Authority; the public and private planning efforts, notably the work of the National Resources Planning Board and war activity agencies such as the U. S. Office of Community War Services.

The writer found several types of relevant literature and research. First, one should mention the systematic books in educational sociology (39, 139). Particularly important to the theme of where and how education should take place, one should cite the 1945 volume of Olsen (138). This, while a manual on "bridges" between school and community such as survey technics, field trips, and audio-visual aids, has discussed in detail the problem of relating school to life. There have been many basic surveys of the

structure of social life. Illustrative of this theme are those of Davis and the Gardners (45), Warner and Lunt (195), West (201), and Zimmerman (214). One should mention for its careful statistical appraisal of urban social life Thorndike's analyses (183, 182) of American larger cities. As guides to study of agencies in the nonschool field the interested student should consult the manuals of Colcord (37) and Karlin (96). Interpretations of the special characteristics of rural (97) and urban sociology (209) should be examined. More broadly one can find a tremendous literature on the modern social scene portraying recent trends (147, 137, 5) and also dealing with planning and design (125, 186). Certain students (68, 129, 174, 163) of the curriculum have emphasized life outside the school as a primary source for determining socially important educative experience to be learned. Space permits the mention of but three important but special sources related to this theme. These respectively have stressed the problem of *Who Shall Be Educated* (196), of coordination of educative agencies in the community (130), and of utilization of imaginative literature as a source of insight in relating cultural forces in social life (76). One will find many critical interpretations, particularly of a postwar nature, in recent educational periodicals. Illustrative of these are articles by Cook (40), Dunn (49), and Watson (197). Colleges, particularly teacher-preparing institutions interested in content and method, also have recently emphasized this trend in providing preparation for teachers in relating the school to the community (13).

The Individual in Relation to Cultural Experience—General Overview of Childhood and Youth

The body of evidence extant summarized previously in this REVIEW and in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* as to child development is prerequisite as a background to interpretation of youth-adult relations and particularly to the byproducts of poor community adjustment of America's underprivileged children. It was evident in the federal-emergency CCC and NYA programs of the 1930's, and in the war-time problem of increased juvenile delinquency. Evidence summarized in these topics in the *Encyclopedia* includes a general overview of the field, the evidence on the influence of nature and nurture (heredity and environment are both important), a variety of aspects of child development, an interpretation by age levels, physical, mental, emotional, and social growth, and data as to abilities and aptitudes of children, morals and conduct, and personality development. On the general topic of youth, Chambers' discussion (33) is primary as a start for orienting one in this field.

Basic to the understanding of older children and of young men and women is the work of the American Youth Commission. Most of the score or more studies of this commission have been previously reviewed. A few interpretations by collaborators of this agency should be cited. Bell (11), based on his experiences in this area, asserted that survival of public education is increasingly dependent on making the school a center of demo-

cratic living; one might add, in coordination with the community. Holland and Hill (87) attempted to interpret camp and work experiences from studies of the CCC. This latter study related to the current discussion of promoting better citizenship obligations on the part of youth. To the reviewer the issue is: compulsory military training for post-adolescent youth versus some kind of an equivalent to war preparation in the planned services of youth to his country, state, and to himself. Reeves (154, 155) utilized the data of the American Youth Commission and discussed planning for youth in the future. A summary of special Negro surveys was completed by Sutherland (179).

One can find many other critical materials dealing with the individual. Bossard, as editor of three issues of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, has discussed, with distinguished colleagues, "The Prospects of Youth" (17), "Children in a Depression Decade" (16), and "Adolescents in War Time" (15). Zorbaugh and others (215) presented an interpretation of the latter topic.

The publications of the Regent's Inquiry of the state of New York represent another notable piece of research. Many of the volumes are pertinent to this area. One of them by Eckert and Marshall (50) discussed a long-neglected youth group—those who leave school. Their data showed an omission of most guidance that youth enjoy who persist in school. The plight of similar groups was reflected in special studies of the NYA youth completed by Lindsay (105) and in an investigation on a more adequate sample of metropolitan youth made by McGill and Matthews (115). Dearborn and Rothney (46) also reported that unemployed youth differ from employed youth in many more respects than popularly thought. Implied in this volume was the above interpretation that these groups were neglected even tho Dearborn and Rothney asserted that aptitude, amount of schooling, and attendance did not seem to be associated closely with unemployment. Perhaps new hypotheses of the factors of proper guidance should be tested. These should include the question of whether formal and informal education can be adapted to each individual in terms of his needs and abilities. Most crucial perhaps will be the broader hypotheses implied in the ideals of the Children's Charter of the White House Conference (142). A bulletin of the Research Division of the National Education Association on "What People Think of Youth and Education" (131) showed from a sample of nearly 4000 representative adults that seemingly these adults were ahead of the thinking of many educators and many schoolboards.

Juvenile Delinquency and the Neglected Individual

One of the first of the studies to be cited is a symposium under the editorship of Cavers (32) on "The Correction of Youthful Offenders." This symposium has reported very challenging interpretations in this field. The articles were by such outstanding authorities as Sellin, MacCormack, Bennett, Ellington, Healy, Bates, Alper, Holton, and others. These papers also included the constructive program sponsored by the American Law Institute

of a model youth authority act. (See particularly Holton's description of the California experiment with this act, p. 655-67.)

Two other symposiums were reported by Sellin (167), and Shalloo (169) in the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. A related interpretation has been reported also by Glueck (64).

Springer and Torrance respectively presented two restricted and more technical studies. Springer (175) studied the social competence of delinquents, half Negro and half white. He found no reliable differences in Negro and white offenders, but first offenders regardless of race differed from recidivists. The latter were found to be less competent and more mature than nondelinquents. Torrance (185) found in a study of 514 adolescent boys of selected social and economic status in a military academy some evidence that broken homes are an influence on adolescent adjustment. Outland (140) has now published in one volume his earlier studies of boy transiency in depression years.

Social Interactional Relationships

Sociologists have long emphasized the importance of the interaction of the individual with others in group life as basic to human nature. Earlier summaries have discussed the stimulating effects of groups, group thinking, social motivation, social solidarity, social and individual integration, the influence of suggestion, and the understanding of the social development of the child.

Studies in the field of attitudes are also related. Most of the investigations have been restricted to a narrow phase of the field. Typical was the dissertation of Timmons (184) which sought to determine if study of social problems contributed to appropriate attitudes. Using such instruments as those of Remmers and Kelly, Timmons concluded that students who read and discussed were better able to solve problems than those who read and studied. A systematic interpretation of the influence of emotions was reported by a group of educators; see *The Emotionalized Attitudes* (53).

There has been considerable use in recent years of the agreement-disagreement technic. As an example of this procedure Beery (10) generalized on currently held conceptions of democracy from students, businessmen, farm groups, and certain more selected groups. He pointed out that a great majority of these people emphasize the worth of the individual. More disagreement was naturally found in the economic than in the political aspects of the democratic conception.

There has also been a concern to see whether people shift in their attitudes. (See Payne Fund study, citation 18, by Peterson and Thurston in Stagner's article in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research.*) The reviewer found one similar study. Smith (173) in a rather elaborate experiment showed marked increases in favorable attitudes registered toward the Negro by an experimental group. Even after a lapse of eleven months a high persistence of this trend was evident. The writer of this study asserted that it is the first scientific attempt to measure the effects of attitude on a

race by first providing opportunity for cultural contact with representative Negroes in the Negro's own environment. Murphy and others (126) also reported a study of attitude formation over a period of five years and claimed shifts in the right direction.

As an example of specialized technics of social influence one could mention the field of advertising—teaching people to want things. It was noted in 1937 that education appeals to the intellect, advertising to the emotion. Apparently there is little research study of the implication of this statement. The one apparently important piece of recent research in this field was that of Hettinger (77). This volume can be regarded as a broad critical survey of broadcast advertising in the radio industry. It described, defined, and evaluated the basic elements of the advertising structure, the underlying principles of its technics, and its economic and social role in the modern business community. The author collected data from a variety of sources including radio stations and advertisers. He also applied psychological understanding in interpretations of the nature and extent of the listening audience.

Still another phase of social interactional relationships is evident in the area of leadership, previously well summarized in this REVIEW and in the above *Encyclopedia*. One should note here the work of Newstetter, Feldstein, and Newcomb (135), and Simpson (172). The latter investigation is important because of other research to be discussed in a subsequent section on public opinion. It showed a tendency for those most influential in discussion to be least influenced themselves.

Social Relationships and Group Behavior

The data of social psychology are basic in the field of social interactional relationships. Young (212) has summarized most recently the background evidence in this area. A study of the concept of where and how education takes place has emphasized the subtle influences of group behavior as conditioned by contemporary social organizations. The Lynds (111) noted twenty years ago in a chapter, "Things Making and Unmaking Group Solidarity," that groups of all sorts are forever forming, shifting, and dissolving. Furthermore, the Lynds (112) reflected the philosophy of social relationships of Muncie citizens in Chapter 12 of their sequel to the above social survey. Each person is a member of a variety of sub groups. Sociologists long since have discussed such groups as "we" and "others" and primary and secondary groups and their interactional patterns.

Public Opinion

The attempt to measure public opinion scientifically is probably the most significant movement in this field in recent years. Examples of this work are found in the activities of the opinion polls such as the Gallup Poll, the Fortune Poll, and those of the National Opinion Research Center. Gallup (60), a pioneer in the field, reported (with Rae) how the opinion poll works. Their volume described in detail the technics of sampling and

the implications of such procedures for democracy. In a more popular fashion Gallup (59) published a brief manual for laymen answering eighty assumed questions about opinion polls.

There is a growing literature of negative criticism of the validity of the opinion poll technic, particularly as to the accuracy of data gathered on complicated questions. Ruch (158) discussed the validity of polls. Weaver (198, 199) in two articles also evaluated this trend and cited other critiques.

One of the most intriguing investigations in the field of opinion is that of Lazarsfeld (101). Several times between May and November 1940 a representative sample of 700 voters of Erie County, Ohio, were interviewed and asked a variety of questions dealing with reasons back of voting decisions. The investigators have reported in detail the differences between Republicans and Democrats, the various influences on a voter making up his mind, what voters were told via radio and print, and the nature of personal influences. The study was a careful quantitative, statistical piece of research. Berelson (12) and Waples (193) have reported on special phases of the same study. Both of these studies emphasized more technical treatment of influences such as the public library and print. Significant in all of the above data was the fact that the major determinant of opinion is the basic predisposition of people to read in print and to listen on the radio to ideas which support what they already have decided as proper to believe.

The reviewer found three studies where this technic of the opinion poll was applied to education. The first by Miller (120) was a critical article on this theme applied in public schools. The second, sponsored by the National Opinion Research Center (132), was similar to a study cited earlier, "What People Think of Youth and Education" (131). The evidence supported, if the individuals sampled are representative, the convictions that more financial support of education was necessary and that continuance of state control of the schools, but with federal aid, was desirable. Furthermore, there was a rather vague reflection of the need for continued emphasis in the current school program on such subjectmatter as academic work, and on vocational, citizenship, and character education. The third, by Rope (157), reported in a more critical and provocative study as to what 14,000 representative citizens in Pittsburgh regarded as important educational needs in that community.

Superstition

Recently there has been considerable study in this field. Emme (52) summarized thirty-four studies which showed that beliefs in superstition seem to decrease with age and with increased educational attainment, that women were more superstitious than men, and that specific instruction decreased belief in superstitions. These studies also revealed that emotions were positively correlated and that intelligence was negatively correlated. In two studies by Emme (52) these generalizations were confirmed. In a

more technical investigation Zapf (213) showed that one can predict super-
stitious beliefs fairly well from paper and pencil tests. Such tests together
with overt behavior were used in the Zapf studies. In the related field of
scientific misconceptions Reed (153) with the aid of competent juries com-
pleted an elaborate list of scientific misconceptions and tested various
groups. Each person had some misconceptions. The range was from 215
to 3. Women had more misconceptions than men. People with the most
schooling had fewer misconceptions than those with lesser amounts of
formal schooling. Men and persons with the greatest amount of schooling
stated that they were less influenced by misconceptions than were women
and persons with less schooling.

Suggestion

A dramatic and readable interpretation of the suggestibility of persons
was reported by Cantril (29) in a rather popular but critical discussion
of the psychology of panic. A more technical restricted study of suggestion
by Simmons (171) showed that children with high IQ's tended to yield to
fewer suggestions than children with lower IQ's where it was assumed
that the children studied were equal in other respects relevant to the study.
The author reported that the differences found were statistically reliable
and concluded that it was reasonable to say that the differences were not
unconnected with differences in IQ.

Propaganda

In recent years professional education has taken cognizance of propa-
ganda as a technic to be studied. It is curious, tho, that in the *Encyclopedia
of Educational Research* the concept is recognized only as a subtopic in the
articles on social studies and on adult education. The above mentioned
literature of social psychology is related. Notable in the reviewer's opinion
is the earlier critical study of propaganda by Doob (47).

Raup (149) brought together data on the influence of organized inter-
ests seeking to shape and control the education of the young. Two inde-
pendent investigations by Cantril (28) and Burgess (24) also have reported
the more specific propaganda influences of such organizations and move-
ments as the National Association of Manufacturers, the Committee on
Industrial Organization, the Townsend Plan, and the Nazi party. These
writers applied the best-known principles of social psychology in their
evaluations and showed that crisis situations could be used effectively by
small but highly organized groups of protagonists who were clear as to
suitable technics and who exhibited magnetic leadership. A more technical
study was that of Lasswell and Blumenstock (100). They made careful
case studies of revolutionary communistic tendencies in Chicago. They
concluded from discrepancies in the data at hand and the data needed
that they could not confirm or disconfirm hypothetical propositions as to
casual relationships in such propaganda.

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Herman Hettinger (78). In the opinion of the reviewer, the last named source has reported a very significant interpretation of this field.

Wagner (191) reported a bibliography of program preferences. Gandy (61), from a study of the literature, concluded that people tend to believe what they hear more than what they read. Hill and Williams (79) studied the formation of radio-listening groups. They estimated that there were 15,000 such groups with 300,000 to 500,000 listeners. They also found that more women than men listen and that they tended to be above average in socio-economic status and income. From a world point of view, Huth's study of radio influence (91) is significant. Schecter (164) has reported a study of how parent associations in New York City regard radio and motion pictures as these affect children.

Reading Studies

Two studies of the sociology of reading by a pioneer in the field, Douglas Waples (192, 194), should be noted. The first was a critical evaluative piece of research on the problem of the social aspects of reading in depression times. The main body of the book dealt with data as to publication sources, distributive agencies, and readers. The field of research was clearly outlined. The second book (193) dealt with the same thesis. It discussed the implications of print in communicating and outlined research procedures on such topics as the above and also content, readers' predispositions, and the social effects of reading. From the point of view of regional variations in cultural assets of the sociology of reading one should mention, tho cited earlier, the important work of Wilson on the *Geography of Reading* (207).

A limited study of motives of readers was reported by Butler (27). It was a questionnaire study of why people read. The predominant motive was information getting. A similar study was completed, under the direction of the writer, by Hatfield (73) of the Greeley (Colorado) Public Library in 1939. Frazer (57) repeated certain of the queries of Hatfield in 1945. Both studies showed a restricted clientele as active users.

The reading abilities of adults have been reported in studies by Broxman (18) and Lorge and Blau (109). The former stated that an eight-weeks' training period markedly raised the reading levels of 175 adults. In the latter study, tests of 242 adults, twenty to seventy years of age, were compared with data on a group of adults who had been checked several times over a period of years. The tests showed no reliable differences between the groups.

The Museum and The School Journey

Melton and others (118) reported experimental procedures in the use of museums. This monograph should be read by the interested student, particularly the chapter on "The Effective Museum Visit." Moore (124) has discussed the relationship of the school curriculum to the museum on the basis of a study of data of 100 museums in the United States and

Canada, and Powel (146) has described experiments with art museums in five metropolitan cities in relation to school education. The most comprehensive summary was that of Ramsey (148).

The most detailed interpretation of the school journey reported was by Atyeo (7). His study was comprehensive and showed that the utilization of this technic has been much more employed in Europe than in the United States. It was a critical interpretation of the movement. Atyeo concluded that the excursion was a more reliable adjunct to class than any other methods studied with it. A related significant investigation was completed by Fraser (56). He evaluated certain possible outcomes of excursions thru the TVA area. His study showed variety of values such as attitudes, appreciations, and interests. Another important finding was the fact that the best single measure of value was an increase in knowledge. For example, the author reported marked growth in understanding of problems such as soil erosion and land management. He also asserted that the data revealed that a growth of knowledge was accompanied by a growth in sympathetic insight and in tolerant attitudes.

There is on the horizon a revival of interest in out-of-school, guided experience. The best source that implements the potentialities of this movement has just recently been published by Olsen (138). He has emphasized in a clear but simple treatment the practicability of capitalizing upon many community resources such as field trips, surveys, service projects, contacts with citizens in the community, camping, and work experience.

The Library

Carnovsky and others (30) presented in 1941 an excellent systematic summary of libraries. Germane to our concern was his discussion of the social and cultural role of the library, library surveys, library government, library uses, and libraries and reading. Wilson (208) edited, with a group of colleagues, for the National Society for the Study of Education the most comprehensive critical interpretation of the library in relation to general education. Vital topics discussed in this volume included significant trends in library development, social and educational changes affecting the library, types of libraries in action, educative materials, and areas of further investigation. McDiarmid (114) has published a survey manual helpful to the interested research student.

The library has long been concerned with adult education. Humble (89) and Johnson (94) have reported for the American Association of Adult Education two critical interpretations of the library in relation to adult education. Also the Board of Adult Education of the American Library Association published a study sponsored by Chancellor (34) on adult guidance activities of libraries, particularly as to suitability of reading materials for adults.

The writer (160) since 1933 has had direct supervision of a cooperative program for the preparation of school librarians, and between 1933 and 1941 had direction of a college library. On the basis of these experiences it

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is his conviction that aside from the technical research of a few interested students there has been too little concern with the tremendous implications of the library as an educational influence, and with the value of vicarious experience via print.

Character Building and Character-Building Agencies

Little research concerning character-building agencies has appeared since 1937. Systematic studies, seemingly not cited earlier, interpreted such movements a dozen or more years ago. These studies covered the Boy Scouts (8), Girl Scouts (22), Girl Reserves (189), YMCA (80), and YWCA (206).

A general inquiry on the effectiveness of these agencies was reported by Stanton (176). Questionnaires returned from forty-six schools in Seattle from two groups, superior children and problem children, formed the basis of that study. The data showed two times as many requests for community-agency help from the problem-children group as from the superior-children group. The study revealed marked differences in home, socio-economic status.

The writer (162), as part of a study of social and cultural influences in the Denver metropolitan area in 1943, found evidence with implications similar to those of Stanton. Using data furnished by the Denver Council of Social Agencies, together with the original comparative analyses of census tracts, the writer found great variations in average monthly rentals, conditions of housing, delinquency, and amounts of formal schooling of adults twenty-five years of age and over in various sections of that city. In ten census tracts with low rentals citizens reported just over an average of seven years of formal schooling. In contrast, out of ten census tracts of forty-four in the city with highest rentals, the inhabitants therein reported an average of thirteen years of formal schooling. A similar confirmation for the Boy Scouts of superior socio-economic status will be found in several studies. Levy (104) showed as the second in a series of social-work interpretations how the public relations job was being carried on for the Boy Scouts. Hendry (75) reported current research on such points as evaluation of the nature of boys and their interests, and experiments with the Scout program. Lippitt and Zander (106) found a domination of the program by adult leaders of the Boy Scouts, particularly by the higher executives.

Clubs

Related to the character-building agencies for youth are clubs. Little research was found but Chambers (33) has compiled a more recent catalog of youth-serving organizations similar to the earlier Pendry and Hartshorne (143) list. The federally aided programs of 4-H Clubs have begun evaluative research under the sponsorship of Frutchey (58). This is a promising trend.

Recreation

Several summaries of research in recreation are available. The most systematic was the detailed interpretation of Gloss (62). Von Treba (190) completed a critical analysis of the major problems and generalizations found in important books in the field of leisure, using the frontier thinker technic. The *Research Quarterly* of the American Association of Health and Physical Education is a significant source.

There is much literature, most of which is not research, on implications of leisure and recreation, and many overview summary discussions and interpretations of such relationships. Butler (26) and Hjelte (82) have discussed in systematic books the administration of recreation. Dulles (48) has published a book on the history of play which is helpful in this field. Two volumes of the Educational Policies Commission also were found to be related to this field, one (128) on the theme of educational policies for community recreation and the other on schools and social services (130). Articles were found, similar to Steiner's more elaborate early survey (177), on quantitative estimates of the money and time expenditures for leisure and recreation. The field of leisure has also been described in such publications as those of Partridge and Mooney (141) and Weaver (200).

A variety of recreation surveys was found, most of them of a limited nature. The most elaborate of these was a study by Wrenn and Harley (211). Halsey (70) surveyed public recreation in metropolitan Chicago. Annually compilations of community recreation have been reported in *Recreation* magazine, the last in July 1945 on 1315 municipalities (150). It is the best source for checking by a community as to how it compares with other communities in recreational programs. Several limited master's investigations of recreational programs in small communities have been completed by Hitchcock (81), Perkins (144), Poppenberg (145), and Williams (205).

There were several questionnaire studies. Two by Gloss (63) and Thorndike (181) interpreted how people spend their spare time. A third research by Green (67) reported a WPA project in Cleveland on leisure-time activities by economic status. Studies by Booth (14), Haltorf (71), Scott (165), Silverman (170), and Wormer (210) have summarized limited studies of recreational activities.

A few studies on special phases in the area should be mentioned. The Army Air Forces Fitness Program was cited recently in the *Research Quarterly* (4) of the American Association of Health and Physical Education. Hunt and others (90) described a remedial program in the field of recreational therapy. Trends in the field have been reported in several articles. The above cited annual compilation of statistics on recreational programs in American cities was one source. An earlier citation described trends in local government control of recreation (151). Rogers (156) and Neumeyer (134) similarly discussed trends. The publications of the National Recreation Association continuously have pointed out trends.

Several articles dealt with planning and coordination of recreation pro-

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grams. Hjelte (83) has interpreted this need; Lentz (103) and Scruggs (166) have pleaded for guidance and planning.

Hallenback and Yuill (69) have recently discussed principles of youth centers for recreation. In this latter field, the work of the Division of Recreation of the United States Office of Community War Services, stimulated by World War II, has been notable (187, 188). This latter type of a community activities program appears to be a major trend today.

Further studies have been made on recreational leadership. One by Hoffer (84) discussed an activity analysis, and another by Charters and Fry (35) reported a course of study for the preparation of recreational leaders from an analysis of recreational research literature.

Camping

Camping, a specialized recreational and cultural program, in the main for privileged groups, has remained largely independent of formal education and formal educational guidance. The writer has found no summaries of research in the educational literature on camping, and for the most part only descriptive articles in the *Education Index*. These together with the considerable book literature were almost entirely narratives of this apparently important educative experience. It is an area that demands fundamental investigation.

There are various camp programs. As implied, these are selective in their appeal to American youth. Most notable was the depression CCC program. The character-building agencies (Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire, YMCA, and YWCA) have emphasized camping. Some churches have made it part of their program. The Kellogg Foundation has emphasized it, and the National Recreation Association has interested itself in the movement. The hostel movement, prevalent until World War II in Europe, was also spreading to America in the 1930's.

Religious Moral Education Including Church and Sunday School

Historically the church has been a dominant agency of social control, particularly in an attempt to teach conduct. Its functions have been to supplement the moral education of the home, neighborhood, and community; to implant ideals thru the agencies that compel conformity; and to build up taboos. The reviewer's earlier summary showed a waning influence of the church as a nonschool agency. The writer found little research pertinent to the nonschool educational influences of religion.

Mathews (117) studied a group of children in the upper grades to discover probable relations or lack of them between ideas of God as held by a person and his actual conduct. This inquiry was correlated with the earlier Character Education Inquiry. The study was valuable for its interpretation of earlier related studies. Anderson (6) reported an inquiry of an area one hundred miles west of Chicago where he worked for several years as a participant observer. This was an elaborate detailed investigation of influences such as the church, school, clubs, and the like with inquiries

into such interests and attitudes as those that relate to God, Jesus, and the Bible. It represented a study that should be followed up with more data. Based on observation of a group of college students in a western institution, Horton (88) discussed various aspects of church ideals and values. The study showed a preponderance of favorable characterizations altho the church itself was somewhat less highly regarded than Christianity. An article by Middleton and Fay (119) dealt with comparative evidence on delinquency and nondelinquency of girls and their attitudes toward the Bible and war. Two other rather complicated summaries by the Wheelers (202, 203) dealt with religious ideas of children of two different cultural patterns and with differences in religious ideas and attitudes of children who go to Sunday school and those who never attend. Bushee (25) has surveyed the church in a small Colorado community, a university town. This was a case study which showed that churches in small cities show more vitality than in rural districts. The chief problem he reported was that of liberal churches holding young people.

Work Experience and Economic Life

A recent yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators on *Schools and Manpower* (127) has reported most comprehensively on the problem of vocational education and work experience in a modern world. There is much relevant literature on the current problem of full employment. Long (107) found many factors associated with the duration of the employment of youth. Bell, on the basis of earlier studies, attempted to make concrete applications in this field of youth employment in a study. Two studies (43, 44) for the American Youth Commission presented significant evidence as to the barriers of youth employment. On the problem of youth work-experience Lorwin's investigations (110), sponsored by the American Youth Commission, explored the field and related it to significant depression work program activities of the CCC, NYA, and WPA. Norton (136) for the Regents' Inquiry surveyed this problem of education for work in New York State. Adam (1) for the American Association of Adult Education has described the worker's education movement.

There is a growing literature on school-work experience. Jessen (92) generalized recently on descriptions of programs in a dozen larger cities. Seyfert (168) has interpreted the philosophy of work experience in a pamphlet in cooperation with the NYA and the Harvard Workshop of Education.

The work camp movement is also important. The writer found two discussions (85, 86) on this phase of the work experience.

Adult Education

Hendrickson (74), by use of questionnaires and limited but intensive visitation, presented trends in public-school adult education activities in cities from 10,000 population upward. This survey showed that there is a potential program within the public school which has grown slowly and

unevenly. Implied in this investigation is the lag of school administrators in this area, particularly in asserting their leadership in coordinating cooperative programs between school and community agencies.

Related to it was Brunner's evaluation (19) of a five-year experiment in Greenville, South Carolina, between 1936 and 1941. In that community while progress was made in efforts to get adult leaders (public officials and leaders of semipublic or private agencies) to plan democratically, continuance of this movement was threatened by failure of such leaders to see the subsequent need of cooperation via a community council which during the period of experiment attempted to localize adult leadership effectively.

Kaplan (95) has carried out an important study on a 5 percent sampling of adults in Springfield, Massachusetts. He studied social and economic factors which bear on nonparticipation of adults in cultural and educational activities carried on by the board of adult education of the public schools of that city. The investigation showed that the activity stimulated by this board seemingly served but a small proportion of adults, and that social and economic factors such as sex, age, marital status, occupation, nationality, and the like were related to failure of adults to participate. Kaplan recommended that the public-school program be expanded and decentralized thru neighborhood councils, and that activities under such a plan be provided to capitalize upon potentialities of greater participation of adults.

A specialized dissertation of the constructional hobby activities of adult males was completed in 1939 by Nestrick (133). Seemingly it has not been cited in previous reviews in this field. The research showed that married men twenty-five to thirty years of age have more of the urge to create than men of other age groups or single men, and that hobbies and constructive activities participated in are related to childhood interests and to constructional occupations of participants. The activities participated in varied greatly within the group studied. To the writer, this investigation suggests the potential extension of school shops and school equipment to adults.

A study of adult education was reported by Brunner (20) in 1943, apparently based on the questions asked by the Federal Census Bureau in 1940 as to amounts of formal schooling of adults twenty-five years of age and over. The data showed a great variation in the number of years of schooling between states and races. It was a restricted inquiry into functional illiteracy.

A source of needed research was found in a recent outline of suggested studies of adult education by Cartwright and Brunner (31).

On the more specialized aspects of adult ability there is a recent follow-up study by Lorge (108) of the early Thorndike data of intelligence of eighth-grade pupils in 1921. Retesting twenty years later a group of young adults, Lorge concluded that schooling made a difference in IQ tests taken after education.

The very significant cultural work of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, particularly the work of its Extension Service in relation to a special type

of adult education for farmers should be noted. This REVIEW recently summarized most of the research in this field (up to the fall of 1944). Some of the more recent activities of this federal department such as soil conservation, the agricultural adjustment program, land use, and the like have been discussed by Taylor (180). Finally the writer found in this field a very recent citation by Brunner and others (21) of a critical interpretation of the current situation of farmers and the efforts of educators to bring to them new knowledge about the presentday situation and to aid them in their vocations and living.

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CHAPTER II

Influence of Science and Technology on Education

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Presentday institutional education is peculiarly a product of the technology which has created the economic productivity necessary to supply the wealth to support an extensive educational system. This increase in productivity has released an increasing proportion of our total population from directly productive labor to engage in study. In turn, the complexities of a culture permeated by science and technology have created a demand for more intensive and extensive education on all levels. Thus, in the broadest sense, a review of the influence of science and technology upon education would involve consideration of almost every aspect in the development of American education. However, science has influenced and is now influencing education in many direct and specific ways. World War II brought into striking focus the extent to which national welfare is dependent upon scientific research, the application of this research, and the general public understanding of science. Scientific method has been progressively extended into fields of study not originally associated with science. The social impact of scientific discoveries has brought new consideration of means and methods of cooperative attack on social problems and integration of knowledge. It is with these more limited and immediate influences of science and technology upon education that this review is concerned.

It is something of a paradox that the large part of the literature dealing with the specific influences of science and technology upon education is primarily of a nonscientific nature. Little comprehensive research of a quantitative nature has been undertaken during the past three years. However, during this period a substantial number of responsible students of education have presented in systematic manner their judgment of the impact of science upon education and of the implication of science for modern education. This chapter is primarily a review of articles of this type. It does not seem amiss to suggest that perhaps there is a need for more comprehensive studies of a research nature to appraise more carefully the influence of science upon education and the implications of modern science for education.

Specialized Education in Science and Technology

The tremendous demand for technically trained personnel in both industry and the military services in World War II resulted in the development of an extensive number of specialized training programs in the scientific and technical fields. These educational programs varied widely in the level of training achieved and the degree of specialization involved. Paralleling this development was the curtailment, abandonment, and re-

vision of conventional university programs of education of scientific workers. While a great deal of general information is available, a comprehensive and systematic appraisal of the extent and effectiveness of these special programs and of their implications for peace-time education has necessarily not been achieved in the short interval of time since the close of hostilities. However, sufficient data have become available to provide the bases for some observations on developments in specialized education in science.

Conant (9), out of experience gained in directing and coordinating war-time research and study, concluded that the securing of talented and able individuals to engage in scientific study and research and providing these individuals with favorable conditions for such study and research is the primary problem in the promotion of scientific education and discovery. Thomas (50) reviewed the effect of war in delaying or preventing the training of young scientific workers. He concluded that this nation in 1945 faces a deficiency of 8200 workers of the Ph.D level in scientific fields. He further estimated that it will be 1955 before this deficiency can be remedied, assuming that no expansion of need occurs during that period. MacNider (29) considered the sources of the qualities an individual must possess for research-mindedness and concluded that in general such people are made, not just born, and that the development of research abilities may be largely due to educational experiences. Edgerton, Britt, and Davis (14) analyzed the distribution by states of the winners in the Annual Science Talent Search conducted by Science Clubs of America and found that the differences among the states in the percent of winners indicated that some states were much more successful than others in locating potential scientists among their high-school seniors. The most comprehensive estimates of national need in scientific personnel and of the necessary steps to provide opportunity for scientific study to able youth was presented by Bush (6) in a report to the President which considered, among other things, the formulation of an effective program for discovering and providing opportunity for American youth with scientific talent. The report summarized the studies of selected committees established under the auspices of the Office of Scientific Research and Development. The deficiency of science and technology students due to the war was estimated to be approximately 150,000. It was further estimated that the accumulated deficiency of those holding advanced degrees in scientific fields would be about 17,000 by 1955. To provide more extensive opportunities for the more capable and promising high-school students to attend college, the report proposed that a system of scholarships and fellowships be established. Tentative proposals presented a plan for providing 24,000 undergraduate scholarships and 900 graduate fellowships in science. There is some probability that significant steps in the assumption of national responsibility for the promotion of science education may develop along the general lines recommended in this report. Proposals for national legislation embodying in some degree these recommendations were summarized in a publication of

the Subcommittee on War Mobilization of the Committee on Military Affairs of the United States Senate (51).

Numerous other studies presented evidence for modification and extension of specialized education in science and technology. Carlson (7) referred to studies which indicated that in some 200 colleges of the North Central Association of Colleges of Secondary Schools in 1941, 1942, and 1943, not more than 20 percent of all courses offered were in the field of the natural sciences. Williams (54) presented a systematic review of the need for tertiary technical education. He advanced the proposal for terminal programs in technical education which would extend beyond the conventional high-school years but which would be less intensive and extensive in nature than the typical program of the technical or scientific college. Webb (53) analyzed the government openings in the different scientific fields and concluded that our educational curriculums in science are not adapted to actual vocational demands. Keal (24) reviewed briefly the philosophy of technical education and emphasized that it is essentially based upon adding to the practical skills the knowledge of science and mathematics. Sutton (47) considered the relationship between education in science and mathematics, and industry, and concluded that the main function of the school is to teach thoroly the fundamentals in science and mathematics. Silverman (44) reviewed briefly the extent and nature of the Army and Navy training programs and the program of the U. S. Office of Education in engineering, science, and management war training. Pertinent questions concerning the appraisal, influence, and continuation of such programs were raised. Tallmadge (48) presented a brief description of two selected war programs of technical education for women and inferred that these programs may lead to permanent expansion of the fields of education for women. The Cooperative Committee on Science Teaching (11) considered the problem of technical education for returning servicemen and recommended that the curriculum of technical institutes should be largely determined by the vocational opportunities of the locality and that purely academic training was not adequate in preparing men for technical jobs.

McGrath (31) and Curtis (12) proposed among other things the extension of scientific and technical education for adults.

Review of current studies and research on specialized education in science and technology leads to the conclusion that substantial modifications are in progress. The specialized wartime educational programs in scientific and technical fields might profitably be more systematically studied and evaluated.

The Place of Science in General Education

The growing emphasis upon science and technology and the increased attention to education in these fields have apparently not decreased the long-term consideration being given to general education. Examination of recent reports in general education indicate that, on the contrary, the complexities introduced into modern life by science and technology have

heightened the consciousness of the need for general education to contribute to a better understanding of the methods of science, the general content of major scientific fields, and the social changes growing out of development in the sciences.

The Harvard Committee (42) in a systematic consideration of *General Education in a Free Society* proposed that study of the physical world should be one of the three basic areas of general education. This report further suggested (a) that education in science should begin in the primary grades; (b) that below the college level education in science should be primarily general in approach; and (c) that integrated courses in the physical and biological sciences stressing fundamental principles be further developed at both the secondary and college level to serve the purposes of general education. The Educational Policies Commission (36) in its carefully considered proposals for the postwar education of all American Youth specified that a portion of its recommended program of general education should be devoted to study of science of an integrated and functional nature. A committee of the American Council on Education (1) formulated comprehensive proposals for general education for members of the armed forces. The development of an understanding of natural phenomena and of scientific method was presented as one of the ten major objectives of general education. Specific outlines of materials to implement this objective were prepared. The Cooperative Committee on Science Teaching (10) presented suggestions for the improvement of general education in science in secondary schools and proposed that a fused course in the physical sciences be systematically developed as a part of this general education in science. Humby and James (21) considered the need for reorganization of science education in Great Britain and concluded that the majority of people were unaware of the potentialities of science. The recommendations presented included, among others, proposals for extensive reorganization of science courses in British secondary schools directed toward the end of providing more continuous and self-contained courses in secondary schools.

Numerous other recent group reports and individual studies have considered more specific aspects of science in general education. Douglass (13) considered the adaptation of instruction in science to postwar conditions and predicted that the trend to correlate or combine related areas in science is here to stay. Powers (40) considered the goals of education in science and concluded that the analysis of the personal and social needs of youth should provide the basis for the science curriculum. Hunter (22) secured responses from over 600 science teachers thruout the country on six questions on trends in science instruction. The responses indicated, among other things, that in the judgment of this group (a) science courses are more closely related than they were ten years ago; (b) applied courses should not supplant courses in basic science; (c) applied courses should supplement courses in basic or pure science. Bigelow, Havighurst, Kelly, and Lark-Horovitz (2) reviewed the need for improving instruction in the basic sciences and recommended that federal aid be extended to establish a

program of vocational and technical education including the related sciences and mathematics. Stephenson (46) and Ingraham (23) considered the nature of conventional science courses and suggested that general courses in science drawing content from the different special fields of science would better serve the needs of liberal arts students. Sears, Caldwell, Havighurst, and Hurd (43) in a symposium on science education individually indicated the need for the development of more adequate and comprehensive instruction in general education courses in science. Lark-Horovitz (26) reviewed the offerings and enrolments in science in the senior high school and proposed, among other things, that for general education a one-year course in physical science, dealing with the fundamental concepts of physics and chemistry, should follow the typical biology offering. Billig (3) and Powers (39) reviewed certain aspects of science instruction in the elementary school and outlined ways in which the interest of children in aeronautics may be used to assist them in gaining science understandings. Hogg (20) proposed that fused courses in science providing a two-year sequence be established. Persing (38) and Martin (30) developed the thesis that new developments in science and the kinds of scientific materials appearing in magazines and newspapers should provide orientation in the development of science instruction.

Further sources of a similar nature could be cited to illustrate the general concern now being exhibited over improving the contribution of science to general education. It appears reasonable to anticipate that there will be, in the immediate years ahead, considerable experimentation in the development of more comprehensive and integrated science courses for general education.

The Extension of Scientific Method

The extension of the scientific method to fields of study not ordinarily associated with the sciences was the theme of numerous philosophic and semiphilosophic articles appearing during the period covered by this review. Nagel (35) listed as one of the outcomes of science the development of the experimental attitude toward questions of conduct and suggested that much more serious attempts must be made to apply science as a method of inquiry to ethical and social fields. Glicksberg (16) postulated that science, as a method of inquiry, should be the core of all subjects rather than a branch of education. Keller (25) observed that the dispassionate and objective attitude which characterizes scientific inquiry needs to be assumed by the student of the social sciences. Gruenberg (18) contended that teachers of science have a major responsibility to demonstrate to students that thinking in all fields of learning can be creative and orderly and not depend upon authorities and absolutes. Lundberg (27) analyzed current research in sociology and cited examples which indicated that there is a trend toward empirical research and the employment of quantitative methods in contrast to the earlier type of historic and philosophic research.

A number of statements appeared which argued or inferred the limitations of scientific method in the search for what may be termed the "true" or "good." O'Hanlon (37) argued that scientific method is valid within a sphere but that moral and natural law is derived from other sources. Hildebrand (19) presented a systematic argument for a delimitation of science on the basis that while science can provide valuable information on the nature of the physical world and of the means toward ends, it cannot determine ultimate ends and therefore man's ultimate well-being is dependent, as well, upon extra scientific types of experience such as art, philosophy, and religion. Miller (33) and Mellon (32) presented somewhat the same thesis and pointed out that while ends are potentially present when furnishing means for action, the ultimate ends are not determined by science but by man's selection of goals. Feibleman (15) argued for a closer relationship between science and philosophy on the basis that the methods of science can strengthen philosophy while philosophy can give vitality and direction to science. It is notable that these and other recent discussions of the limitations of science have not questioned the validity of the scientific method in current fields of study nor the desirability of its extension further into appropriate fields of study other than the determination of values and purposes. Perhaps more significant than the philosophic arguments over the place of science is the appearance of research work applying scientific methods on a more extensive scale to social and human problems. A notable example of this is the work of Myrdal (34) in his study of the American Negro.

Social and Educational Responsibilities of Scientists

Examination of recent educational literature revealed a number of thoughtful articles dealing with the social responsibilities of the scientist. Taylor (49) warned the public against taking engineering and scientific contributions for granted. He stated that our teaching must result in causing the citizen to think in terms of science and the scientist to assume his social obligations. Goran (17) postulated that scientists will be required to take a more active part in government, economic, and political life. He implied that as scientists become more humanistic the citizen will become more scientific in the solution of his problems. Pratt (41) suggested that pure scientists are a group of liberal, tolerant, internationally minded men who work with little concern for the ultimate importance of their discoveries. He warned that applied scientists must take social responsibility for the applications of their discoveries. He indicated the need for more social responsibility on the part of the scientist and suggested more attention to the study of philosophy. Leitch (28) indicated that freedom of research must be maintained in order that the scientist may continue to discover and to reveal additional knowledge. The cooperation of the scientist, the philosopher, and the man of religion was deemed necessary for the establishment of human values and objectives. Brody (4) recognized that workers in the field of science are becoming increasingly cognizant of the social impli-

cations of science. He suggested that representative groups of scientists attempt to define and predict "the ideals and the evolutionary trends" of mankind and devise a plan for attaining the desired objectives.

Compton indicated (8) that the growth of science and technology in our society makes increased cooperation, better and broader education, and the establishment of an accepted objective increasingly necessary. He postulated that increased socialization results from greater knowledge and improved technics and the consequent greater specialization and interdependency. He charged scientists with the task of "establishing the strong foundation of science" necessary for the proper growth of our society.

The Development of Instructional Aids

There appears to have been little systematic research in the recent period concerning the value of the new technical devices now being used as instructional aids in our schools. There is ample evidence that scientifically developed training aids are in wide usage and most authors have indicated that the results justify their continued development.

Studebaker's committee for the study of military training aids has indicated in its published bulletin (52) that much of significance to civilian education may be gained from the experience of the armed forces in the use of such aids. Important technical devices which they reported in extensive use were motion picture films, film strips, instructional sound recordings, real objects, models, and "mock-ups." Considerable technical skill entered into the production of the multitude of training pictures, charts, diagrams, maps, and posters also widely used. It was suggested that the educators who served in the development and use of these technical training devices should, when they return to civilian positions, contribute to an increased and more effective use of scientific instructional aids.

Slye (45) pointed out the importance of the science laboratory and the use of the laboratory method and laboratory equipment in developing "inquisitiveness, initiative, and self-reliance as it relates to" the behavior of students in many areas of learning. She believed that the school should be responsible for providing the opportunity of actual laboratory practice to each student to aid him in solving his personal problems thru the adaptation of the laws of science. She recommended that laboratory experience be provided at many different levels in each student's development.

Bush (5) suggested that science has the potential resources, methods, and machines, to simplify immeasurably the task faced by the scientific worker in recording his observations and maintaining his acquaintance with the work of others. He suggested the extended use of such devices as photographic equipment, including microfilm, computational machines, and elaborate recording and filing devices.

Scientific research and invention have, without doubt, provided many devices which are capable of contributing to effective instruction and individual learning. The evaluation of the effectiveness of many of these devices will continue to require systematic research.

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CHAPTER III

Problems of Intercultural Education[1]

HARRY H. GILES, VICTOR E. PITKIN, and THELMA INGRAM

THE TERM "intercultural education" is relatively new. It does not appear as a listing in the *Education Index* until after 1941, and not in *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* until 1943. Intercultural education is education to improve understandings and practices of good human relations between individuals of the many culture groups.

The basic problems can perhaps be placed under three main categories: (a) What are the goals of intercultural education? (b) What are the hypotheses on which work can be based to reach these goals? and (c) What are the practices that require testing in action? An examination of these three major areas and attendant issues will reveal how deeply intercultural education cuts into the pattern of general education, both as to content and practices. Indeed, to define how intercultural education differs from general education is not always easy.

The Problem of Goals

The basic problem of intercultural education is to define its goals. Most professional workers accept as a generalized goal of intercultural education the improvement of relations between individuals and groups. Most workers would also agree on the principle that intercultural education should seek to gain respect for the many individual differences among our varied populations, yet strive for a common social purpose, the latter being the continuance of a dynamic democracy.

There are other areas, however, in which there is no consensus. Many will at once raise the issue as to whether intercultural education belongs in the schools. Many contend that it is the job of the churches, business and labor groups, women's clubs, and other adult organizations and has no place in the schools. What is the relative importance of youth education versus adult education in this area? Others raise the question: Should intercultural education focus on the employment, training, promotion, and firing of teachers? Should attitude qualifications for hiring of teachers be established and an attitude test be given to prospective teachers? Should a teacher who is well informed in his subjectmatter be allowed to continue to teach even tho he promotes undemocratic ideals? Should a Negro be employed on a staff when there are no Negroes in the community?

Again every practical educator will face the problem of determining the limits to which schools can go in the development of a program of intercultural education in face of community practices that may be contrary to the tenets of such education. These practices would include statements

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of anti-Semitism; segregation of Negroes in housing, schools, and hotels; denial, thru whispering campaigns, to Catholics the opportunity to hold public office either thru appointment or election; the display of "for rent" signs with the added notice "none but Gentiles need apply"; the use of restrictive covenants whereby land is not sold to certain groups of people. In the light of conditions such as these, will it not be necessary for the school and the community to work together?

The problem of scope is one in which there is not yet full agreement, even among professional workers in the field. Many schools point out that they have been teaching about the contributions of various immigrant groups to American life. Is this enough? Our economic and social patterns vitally affect relations among the varied groups. Should intercultural education take account of and examine the effects of a competitive society and of a noncompetitive society upon intergroup relations? Does intercultural education include a study of the part played by caste and class in society? How about the problems of youth versus parents, especially children of immigrants or first generation? How about the study of problems of one youth gang versus another youth gang, particularly where the first gang is predominantly of one nationality or religion and the second is of another nationality or religion? Again, to what extent should pupils participate in planning and carrying out work which involves intercultural relations? Such questions as these show how varied is the scope and how deeply the goals of intercultural education may become enmeshed with the goals of general education.

What Are Tenable Hypotheses?

Closely allied to the problem of determining goals and scope is the problem of forming hypotheses on which to plan work in the field of intercultural education. In spite of the fact that there is need for further research, some frame of reference must be made to plan work now. Examples of possible hypotheses follow: (a) If the school enables young people to share the findings of outstanding physical and social scientists as to good human relations, it will result in increased understanding and improved social relations among the varied groups in school and in out-of-school life. (b) If the school emphasizes critical thinking and the nature of proof in the field of human relations as in other fields, there will be increased understanding of scapegoating and use of stereotypes, and the hate propagandist will find a more discriminating audience less willing to accept vicious hate-stirring assertions. (c) If the school aids each individual within its sphere to achieve integrated growth, self-realization and organization, and provides opportunities for therapeutic release of pent-up tensions, it will promote better human personalities much less prone to prejudice and discriminatory practices. Are such hypotheses tenable?

In this first part we have presented some of the more urgent issues in the broader problem of considering the goals for intercultural education and hypotheses as a frame of reference from which to work now. Ask any

group of educators to discuss some of the issues that we have raised and it will become clear that while there may be agreement as to some of the goals of intercultural education, there will be widespread disagreement as to others. Even these hypotheses may prove unacceptable to some.

Problems Needing More Research

We now turn our attention to the second area and consider problems that require more basic scholarly research before we can advocate "a" program of intercultural education. The social scientists need to analyze painstakingly some of the factors that influence behavior and make their results known to educators. We need to know what it is that children cherish most, what makes people hate other people, how attitudes are made and altered, and many other similar things before we can state more positively the nature of a program for intercultural education.

There is need for research in the area of values. What values do people hold highest? At what ages do these attitudes become crystallized? What influences affect values and at what ages? How stable and persistent are these values? Do people have certain fixed values, or are values always related to a situation? If social scientists could tell what patterns of values are commonly cherished by very young children, by adolescents, and by each succeeding age, this would provide rich leads as to the nature of an intercultural program.

Closely allied to, but distinct from, values is the problem of attitudes. Research has already revealed that attitudes are not innate but are learned. Further research is needed to determine what are the crucial ages and crucial causes in forming attitudes about other peoples. There is also a need to find out the ways in which attitudes emerge on specific issues relating to intercultural relations. Which attitudes are likely to be acquired at which ages? When an unsocial attitude is acquired, how long before it can be altered and by what means? We need to know how to measure the intensity of attitudes. To what extent do young people take over verbalized attitudes from their parents and friends without thinking them thru?

We need to know more about the attitudes of minority groups toward the majority group, toward other minorities, and toward members of their own minority group. What are the attitudes of the various classes of Negroes toward white people of various classes; toward certain ideas of white people? What do Negroes think about other Negroes, about Jews? To what extent are we justified in any collective expression of attitudes such as are implied in the above questions?

Again, what is prejudice and what causes it? Already considerable research has been undertaken but we need more. What is the relation between personality types and attitudes? Can we identify the conditions that make for hate? What personalities are most likely to hate?

Another area that may provide rich returns concerns the basic needs of children that must be satisfied if they are to be healthy, normal, and not antisocially aggressive. Assuming that frustration does often lead to ag-

gression, what are the needs of children that can be met and are not being
met by the schools? We must know more about the nature of the needs of
children to make them mentally healthy so that they do not catch and nur-
ture the germs of hate.

Research in these areas should offer a twofold help to those interested in
intercultural education. It will provide accurate information to form a basis
on which to develop plans. It may provide technics by which teachers can
become more and more aware of values, needs, and attitudes of children in
their classrooms.

Practices That Need Testing in Action

Turn now to the third area and consider practices that merit further
testing in action. The list here is too long for exhaustive treatment. It ranges
from the almost philosophic type of problem as to whether intercultural
education should be basically a moral approach or whether it is a matter
of presenting factual information to such a question as whether moving
pictures are a better way to impart information than is a textbook.

Perhaps it is well to recall the fact that the school is only one factor in
the life of children. To what extent can changes be made in attitudes of
children in a school where important segments of the community popu-
lation are hostile to the goals of intercultural education; where the com-
munity is neutral; and where the community is quite favorably disposed?
How do you find out what percent is favorable? How do you deal with each
of these groups and at the same time carry on a program in the schools?
To what extent does the development of a positive program for intercultural
education in the schools act as a force in changing attitudes in the com-
munity? Can a barometer of public opinion be devised that will be useful
in measuring the pulse of the public? To what extent must the focus of in-
tercultural education be placed on the community before it is brought into
the curriculum? These are all vital problems in the engineering of a pro-
gram for intercultural education.

Further technics in social engineering are needed to introduce inter-
cultural education into schools where the superintendent and principal are
willing but the teachers are not, or again in the school where the teachers
are willing but the principal and superintendent are not. How can any-
thing be done with a staff heavily loaded with teachers who carry deep
antidemocratic prejudices? What types of in-service training best meet
the needs of teachers who are not sensitive to problems of intercultural
relations? How do you get administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents to
work together for the mutual development of better human relations in the
community and in the school?

Assuming that teachers and principals are willing to undertake a pro-
gram for intercultural education, can it be shown that a school can alter
the attitudes of its pupils? If so, by what means does it bring about these
changes? Is the technic of introducing special units here and there at vari-
ous grade levels better than the technic of seeking general curriculum

revision in which aspects of intercultural materials are infiltrated thru all the courses? Is it better to attack problems of prejudice directly in the classroom, or is it better to approach unfair treatment of people thru the study of housing conditions and other similar topics?

How can intergroup relations within the school be improved? To what extent do teachers and pupils work together? Do grouping in the lunch-room; membership in the school council, orchestra, glee club, and athletics; opportunity to use swimming pools, shops, arts and crafts rooms; segregation in schools and classrooms; placing high prestige on academic success and the like actually defeat or encourage better human relations? Again, how rapidly can schools bring about changes in attitudes and what is the optimum speed to bring about changes that result in sound attitudes that have stability? For example, in a school system in a northern state that has a long practice of segregation, how much preparation must be made in the school and community and for how long before schools are open to all children regardless of color or creed? Should such a program be linked to a two-, five- or ten-year plan?

Again, what types of learning activities produce the maximum results for effort expended? In their effects upon attitudes, how does a highly dramatized and emotional experience compare with a penetrating analysis of facts coupled with the stringent training in the nature of proof? Which of these are most effective for what groups—participating in forums, reading news-papers, reading magazines, reading textbooks, listening to the radio, attending evening classes, taking trips, listening to sermons, getting legislation enacted, watching movies, mixing in social groups?

Within each of the above areas there is a need to test out the various types to see which is most effective for which groups. For example, it has been stated that "disproof literature"—the stating of a libel and then offering proof that the libel is not true—causes more harm than good. We need studies to determine whether or not this is true. Again, we need studies to compare the effectiveness of a sociological novel with that of a textbook approach in a class of a senior high school. What is the comparative effectiveness in achieving a better understanding of problems in human relations of an excerpt from a regular moving picture over the documentary film? How effective are the various types of pamphlet materials? What is the value of having speakers of minority groups who speak on problems of international affairs, poetry, or some other topic? These are but samples of a whole host of practices in the schools about which we need to know more.

Another area that is worth watching for its effects upon practices and attitudes is that of legislation and government fiat. The FEPC established in 1941 by executive order of President Roosevelt, the Quinn-Ives Act in New York State, and other similar measures offer fruitful opportunities to secure data. To what extent does the process of developing, passing, and enforcing such legislation act as a great educational stimulant and lead to more harmonious relations, and to what extent does such a process in-

tensify and deepen prejudices already held by forcing people to move too fast in their social thinking? How long does it take to find out?

Still another area that needs further testing concerns the various devices that have been developed to estimate and measure attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and behavior. Some are paper and pencil tests; others are anecdotal records based upon observed behavior. Recently, newer technics have been developed. Sociometric diagrams offer a way of learning something of how children group themselves and the changing pattern of these groupings. Projective technics of allowing children to complete a problem story provide an opportunity for a "free response" rather than a controlled response. Ways and means of making these technics valid and reliable will perhaps be a step toward appraising the various phases of intercultural education. But more than that, they are useful technics by which teachers may be able to get started in the process of understanding how to deal with children.

Finally, there is the problem of how to plan for the future teachers who are now in college but who will shortly be in the classroom. Should such teachers be required to take certain materials in anthropology, biology, psychology, sociology, and history so that they will have a factual background of recent information in these fields so basic to an understanding of human relations? How can the instructors in these institutions be sensitized to the need for some such integrated program? Is there a need for an educational philosophy that recognizes the importance of better human relations for itself and for the continued development of our democracy?

The field is new. The research on which some of the material for better human relations must be based is new. There is still much to learn before there are final answers. The fact that this article focuses on problems does not mean that considerable progress has not already been made. However, if the present problems can be defined and then attacked, perhaps more progress will be made.

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CHAPTER IV

Problems of Equality of Opportunity in Education

NEWTON EDWARDS

It has long been known that great differences exist in the financial ability of the several states to support an adequate program of education. The most exhaustive and detailed treatment of this subject that has yet been made is that of Norton and Lawler (16). Data were collected for each of the 115,000 local administrative units of the United States with respect to its educational load and its financial ability. This study presents a graphic inventory of the financing of education for the United States and for each of the states. It contains 192 charts and nearly 100 tables. From these one can get a vivid picture of: (a) inequalities of educational support in the United States; (b) differences in support of public education within the several states; (c) cost of a reasonable minimum state and national program of education; (d) relation of level of support to ability to finance education; (e) relative effort made by the states to support education; and (f) the relation of the level of school support to such matters as school attendance and functional literacy. Federal aid to education is urged as the only reasonable way to correct the educational inequalities growing out of financial inequalities. Norton (13, 14) and Norton and Davies (15) have prepared articles based in the main upon the findings of their investigation for the cooperative study of public-school expenditures. They present pertinent facts with respect to inequality of educational opportunity, among them the differences in education and health revealed by draft boards, and argue forcefully for federal aid.

Differences in Educational Opportunity and Attainment

The twenty-third yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (10) presented a considerable amount of data on differences in educational opportunity between states, regions, urban-rural communities, and social classes. Attention was given to differential fertility as a factor in creating an imbalance in the educational load. Shryock (18) analyzed the educational attainment of the population above twenty-five years of age as reported in the 1940 Census. He showed the striking differences in the educational attainment of the urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm population. Even more striking differences were shown when the native white, foreign-born white, and Negro segments of the population were compared. The data presented show for each state the median of school years completed for persons twenty-five years of age and over by race and by urban and rural communities. The educational attainment of the white urban population of the South is strikingly higher than that of the rural white population and very much higher than that of the rural nonwhite population. In fact, the white urban population of the South has

gone to school more years than the white urban population in most other regions. In only three southern states did the native white urban population fall below the national average in the median of school years completed.

Edwards (3, 4) has shown the relation of inequalities of educational opportunity and attainment to social and economic conditions. He stressed the importance of differential fertility in creating an imbalance in the educational load. He concluded that the population reserves of the nation are being recruited from those areas where the economic structure is the weakest and the planes of living the lowest. A county-by-county comparison of the planes of living for all the counties in the United States revealed that in most instances counties with the lowest planes of living are the ones with the heaviest educational load. The conclusion was drawn that a fundamental change is required in our national educational policy. Federal and state aid given directly to individual pupils and students whose needs and capacities justify it appears essential if the American people are really committed to the ideal of the equal chance. McGill (7) discussed the principles he thinks should be applied for the equalization of opportunity within a state. Arguments for federal aid as a means of realizing the ideal of equal access to education have been summarized at some length by Myers (9). The problems of federal aid and control of education are considered by Smith (19) who urged that people stop thinking of the national government as tho it were an alien or hostile power. He insists that federal aid and control to a degree can be fitted into the framework of American institutions.

Programs for Attaining Equality of Opportunity

The most comprehensive program for bringing about equal access to education is to be found in a report of the National Resources Planning Board (12). The program provides for equal access to elementary- and high-school education for all children and youth, for an extension of nursery-school and kindergarten services, for financial assistance to able and needy youth who may wish to attend colleges and universities, for varied forms of part-time education for adults, and for more extended and more adequate facilities for children in need of special types of education. The recommended program also makes provisions for the improvement of the quality of education to be afforded. The enlarged and improved program of education envisioned in this report would be supported to a considerable extent by federal funds. The inequality of the tax burden for education now existing within and among the states would be reduced thru the distribution of state and federal funds on the basis of need. The opinions of a number of leading educators with respect to this recommended program are published in an issue of *The American Teacher* (1).

The efforts of the several states to provide a more equal access to education have been analyzed in a *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association (11). From this investigation one can get a general overview of the equalization program of the states. A careful and detailed study of

the equalizing effects of the state aid provisions of the Massachusetts statutes has been made by Fuller and Wilking (5). Plemmons (17) has recounted progress made in the extension and equalization of educational opportunity in the South. Some data on inequalities of educational opportunity in California are supplied by Armstrong (2). He also discusses the basic principles for equalizing opportunity in that state. Grimm (6) has analyzed the extent of need for equalization in Illinois, the results of the equalization program of the state, and present issues involved in the equalization program.

The effect of the American social class system on equal educational opportunities has been analyzed in considerable detail by Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb (20). They present a number of concrete proposals, the acceptance of which they regard as necessary for the advancement of democratic education.

A concrete attack on the educational problems of the South thru regional cooperation has been made in a publication of the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems (8).

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CHAPTER V

Educational Implications of Population Change

NEWTON EDWARDS

The declining birth rate and the falling off of population growth, the changing age composition of the population, differentials in fertility, and the reshuffling of the population in search of social and economic opportunity—all these phenomena are creating political, economic, and social problems of the first magnitude. Conditions created by these population changes must be taken into consideration in formulating social policy whether in the area of government, economy, or education.

From the very large number of publications containing basic data on population change only a few can be selected for comment. A report of the National Resources Planning Board (47) presented significant data on many aspects of population change, including growth in relation to economic opportunity, population redistribution, regional and racial differences in reproduction rates, health and physical development, and social development and education. Davis and others (6) prepared an extensive analysis of the problems of world population in transition. One of the contributions to this symposium deals with the changing population of the United States and another with the issues involved in the development of population policy. Thompson (44) and Landis (26) each prepared comprehensive general treatments of population problems. In another volume Thompson (45) introduced the lay-reader to the major problems of population change, including considerations involved in formulating a population policy for the United States. In their estimates of future population in the United States Thompson and Whelpton (46) supply invaluable basic data for social scientists working in many areas. Lorimer and others (29) in their discussions of the foundations of an American population policy presented significant data on population trends, including among other things the relation of population to investment and economic enterprise, the social aspects of population change, and the changing pattern of the family. The problems which population change poses for democratic societies were treated by Myrdal (30).

More specialized treatments also provide data of value to educators. Group differences in urban fertility have been analyzed by Kiser (25). Edwards (12, 13) presented data on the pressure of population in the resource structure of rural America and Taeuber (42) and Baker (1) dealt with the role of migration in the adjustment of the rural population. The pressure of population on resources by regions and the need of outward migration from certain regions were analyzed by Goodrich (17).

Comprehensive Studies of Educational Implications of Population Change

Educational policy and practice are affected by four major aspects of population change: (a) the falling birth rate, (b) the changing age structure of the population, (c) differential fertility, and (d) internal migration. A number of investigations dealt with two or more of these aspects of population change. The National Education Association (31, 33) and its Educational Policy Commission (32) published bulletins which deal with major changes in population and their educational implications. Reavis (35) analyzed in some detail the problems in educational administration created in urban communities by population change. Norton (34) summarized some of the more important educational implications of population change. In a number of studies Edwards (8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13) dealt with the educational implications of declining fertility, the changing age structure of the population, differential fertility in relation to planes of living, the imbalance in the educational load as between regions and rural-urban communities, the reshuffling of the population, and federal aid to education.

Educational Implications of the Declining Birth Rate

The effect of the widespread adoption of the small family pattern on school and college attendance has been considered in a number of investigations. Harvey (18, 19, 20) studied enrolment trends for the nation as a whole, in the elementary grades in the various states, and in urban and rural communities. Smith (39, 40) published data which led him to the conclusion that college attendance would be profoundly affected by the falling birth rate. Population trends affecting college enrolments, according to Edwards (7, 14), will probably be offset by other factors. Vaile (48) estimated that college enrolments after the war will exceed the highest previous figures by at least 400,000.

A study of a sample of Ohio families by Holy and Wenger (21) revealed the percent of urban and rural families having children in public schools. Their findings led to recommendations with respect to school support and public relations. Conrad (3) found that between 1930 and 1940 the population under fifteen years of age in cities of 10,000 and over decreased by 12.5 percent. He presented data for different regions and for cities of different size and drew conclusions with respect to school attendance in the future. The effect of population trends on the future demand for teachers was analyzed by Spengler (41). He suggested the desirability of a modification of policy in the area of teacher education. Larsen (27) supplied a simplified measuring tool to forecast population growth and school attendance in small communities.

It should be pointed out that these investigations dealing with the prospect of future enrolment were made before Thompson and Whelpton (46) revised their estimates of future population growth. They do not take into account adequately the upturn in the birth rate, temporary tho it may be,

during the late Thirties, the early Forties, and possibly during the postwar period.

The Changing Age Structure of the Population

In most of the references listed under "Comprehensive Studies" attention was given to the educational implications of the changing age structure of the population. Richey (36) treated this subject in some detail both with respect to the past, the future prospect, and educational implications in the future. The use of the population pyramid as a device for showing the future age structure of the population was suggested by David (4). He showed, too, the relation of the changing age structure to promotions of pupils and to the professional advance of both teachers and administrators. Edwards (9) presented data on the social and educational consequences of the declining importance of youths as a population element.

Differential Fertility

Data on the educational implications of differential fertility have been presented in a number of investigations (8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 31, 33, 34). These studies give attention to state and regional differentials, urban-rural differentials, reproduction in relation to economic status and planes of living, the unequal responsibility for the nurture and education of children and youth, the relation of differential reproduction to internal migration, and the need of modification of educational policies.

Internal Migration

Practically all the investigations listed above as "Comprehensive Studies" present data on the educational implications of internal migration. A number of special studies of this aspect of the population problem have also been made. Larson (28) found that a large percent of the pupils of Arizona were migrant and that in general retardation was associated with migration. Tetreau and Fuller (43) investigated the factors associated with the school achievement of pupils who had moved into Arizona from other states and regions. A study of a sample of pupils in the Missouri schools by Carpenter and Capps (2) revealed that 43 percent of the pupils had moved from one school to another and that of those who had moved 18 percent were from without the state. Overageness was greatest among the migrants, the more the moves the slower the progress. A study of matched migratory and native children in California by Grant (16) revealed the relative achievement of the two groups of pupils. Hunt (22) made an analysis of the educational problems growing out of migration within and into the state of Texas.

Educational Attainment of the Population

Important studies have been made of the educational attainment of the population. Karpinos and Sommers (23) made a careful investigation for the nation as a whole of the effect of family income on the educational

attainment of urban youth, white and Negro. They made a similar study for the various regions of the United States (24). The 1940 Census data on number of years of school completed have been analyzed by Shryock (38). He showed the median of school years completed for persons twenty-five years of age and over by race, urban and rural, for each of the States. He also showed the educational attainment of the population of the United States above twenty-five years of age in urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm communities. The same was done for the native white, foreign-born, and Negro population.

Inasmuch as this topic has not received very much attention in previous REVIEWS, a number of items published before 1942 have been included in the bibliography.

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CHAPTER VI

The Community and the School

EDWARD G. OLSEN

THE community relationships of American schools were profoundly affected by war needs and developments. In certain respects this influence was salutary. The stimulation given to school-sponsored community service projects such as scrap collection, bond and stamp sales, student staffing of child-care centers, wide-spread work experience achieved in agriculture and in industry, and the like was wholesome. School participation in the community integration and leadership movement as previously reported by Cook (18) was also a highly desirable development in the direction of enduring school-community cooperation. Somewhat offsetting these gains, however, is the fact that war-caused shortages in all forms of motor transportation, together with the requirements of national security and a general lack of qualified personnel, practically eliminated the field trip programs, the local surveys, and the week end or summer camps previously operated by many school systems. Nevertheless, the basic concept of the community school, as that concept had emerged during the later 1930's, steadily increased in professional favor thruout the war years.

The Community-School Concept

In what may be the most significant educational document of this decade the Educational Policies Commission (23) presented a detailed and comprehensive plan showing how America's 30,000 high schools and junior colleges can be transformed in purpose and program so as to provide adequate educational services which will actually meet the basic needs and capitalize the varied abilities of *all* American youth. Disclaiming "blueprints" but presenting "samples," the Commission boldly described in detail the kinds of life-centered, community high schools it asserts must everywhere be developed immediately if youth needs are to be met and if federal control and management of secondary education is to be avoided in this nation.

This whole community-school concept has been further analyzed by Olsen (72) who identified in the literature of the field five major conceptions of what the community school should do: (a) operate as an educational center for adults, (b) utilize community resources to invigorate the conventional program, (c) center its curriculum in a study of community structures, processes, and problems, (d) improve the community thru participation in its activities, (e) lead in coordinating the educative efforts of the community. Olsen also charted the philosophic relationship of the community school with both the academic school and the progressive school, listed the sociological and psychological criteria against which any democratic educational program must be judged, and summarized ten

basic operating principles upon which successful school-community study and service programs are based (70, 72). The National Congress of Parents and Teachers sought in a noteworthy volume (59) to bridge the gap between democracy and community. In this publication, nineteen authors presented excellent sketches of current American community life in its total educational influence.

Some of the reasons why community interests should receive emphasis in the curriculum of this postwar period were listed by Seay (87), who also discussed six general principles which must guide the development of a community educational program. Tyler (106) pointed out two real dangers in the community-school movement: (a) exclusive concentration on community activity as the sole type of educational experience and (b) a tendency to think that the primary aim of the school is to raise living standards in the community rather than to use community activities as one means of educating pupils. The relationship of personal experiences to critical thinking was stressed by Wilson (117) and Milligan (54), while McCloskey (49) and Olsen (69) canvassed some possibilities of providing better for individual differences in ability and interest thru instructional use of community resources.

What happens when a traditional school becomes community conscious and proceeds to rebuild its program accordingly has been ably documented by Pierce (77), Corey (20), Strong and Gerard (100), and by Ragsdale (83). The community approach to educational planning was also reviewed by Moehlman (56), Renwick (85), and Olson (73). Two bulletins of general program suggestions were published by the Department of Elementary School Principals (60, 61), while a Chicago conference considered the nature of school and community relations, school utilization of community resources, the contribution of the school to the improvement of community life, the community responsibilities of school personnel, and the possibility of educational progress thru community study (17).

These and other similar areas were explored in actual community-school situations under guidance of the Southern Rural Life Council which came to grips with vital questions of community living, recommended specific action programs (98), and issued an excellent directory (97) of many agencies concerned with the quality of rural life.

An even more comprehensive approach to the problem of relating education to community life needs was made over a period of years by the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems (99). Over 150 persons, organized into twenty-eight committees, prepared materials dealing with (a) the social need for southern development, (b) building an education to meet that need directly, (c) organizing and (d) administering schools accordingly, and (e) the uses of continuous evaluation to assure progress within the total process. This report is highly significant because of the regional cooperation involved as well as the practical recommendations made. Meanwhile, the University of Virginia's *New Dominion Series* of leaflets continues regularly to report specific case

study descriptions of individual schools which are developing functional school-community programs (112).

Building Bridges Between School and Community

Some years ago the Educational Policies Commission stated that many schools are pedagogic islands, cut off from the mainland of life by channels of convention, and that few schools had built bridges over which pupils and adults alike could freely pass between school and community. Specific directions for constructing and utilizing ten such educational bridges have now been provided by Olsen and eleven others (72), who outlined the values, limitations, and technics of using documentary materials, audio-visual aids, resource visitors, interviews, field trips, surveys, extended field studies, camping, service projects, and work experiences as aids to education thru community study and service. In the same volume appeared the first comprehensive treatment of such important community-study administrative problems as those of program planning, scheduling, finance, legal liability, evaluation, public relations, community service center, community coordination, and teacher education.

Documentary Materials

The school uses of documentary materials written specifically to meet community life needs are still under long-time controlled investigation by the state universities of Kentucky, Florida, and Vermont, in cooperation with their respective state departments of education, and with aid from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. The basic question under investigation is to what extent a school can directly improve the material standard of community living thru what it teaches to children in its classroom. The experimental procedure was the same in each state: (a) exploratory surveys and pupil tests were devised, (b) new curriculum materials and programs were developed and inaugurated in selected schools, and (c) learning results will be measured in terms of specific changes in individual and community living standards. Since these "Sloan Experiments in Applied Economics" are still under way, no final report has yet appeared. However, some descriptive progress reports covering all three states have been issued by the experiment's educational consultant, Harold F. Clark (11, 12, 13, 14). Similar progress statements have been published for Florida (housing) by Henderson and Nutter (31, 32, 33), by Olson (73, 74), Olson and Nutter (75), and by Alfred and Harold Sloan, respectively (92, 93); for Kentucky (nutrition) by Barnard (3), Carney (10), Seay (88, 89), and Seay and Meece (90); and for Vermont (clothing) by Carney (10) and by Morrill (58).

The American Association of Teachers Colleges is now engaged upon a similar controlled experiment. Eight member colleges in various parts of the nation are seeking to discover whether it is possible to help pupils and their families improve home conditions by centering school reading lessons and activity projects around better ways of living.

In Minnesota a two-and-one-half year experiment to determine the effectiveness of nutrition education in changing the actual food habits of children has been reported by the U. S. Office of Education (108). This study concluded that " children do improve their food practices when they (a) discover what changes they need to make, (b) are strongly motivated to learn about foods and to apply what they learn in their own diets, and (c) have access to the right kinds and amounts of food."

Audio-Visual Aids and Interviews

An experiment in the use of phonograph records as a means of improving education in small rural schools was reported by Bathurst (4) for the New York State Department of Education. Thirty-eight special recordings were produced and distributed for trial use in selected schools. One series of records was designed to teach elementary concepts of conservation thru building a nature trail. Other records made different use of community materials. Each teacher was asked to make a questionnaire report on each record used, describing its use in detail and evaluating it according to specific criteria provided. More than 90 percent of the reporting teachers judged that the "environment" series of records was of some or great value in attaining teaching objectives, in developing children's attitudes, and in general effectiveness in working with children.

The first comprehensive experiment in improving museum-school relationships was reported by Powel and Munro (80). Art museums and secondary schools in five American cities cooperated to plan, execute, and evaluate various visual education projects. Comprehensive recommendations to secondary schools were made.

A five-year experiment in the use of the interview as a method of utilizing community resources in vocational guidance was completed by Gernant (25). In this experiment, high-school seniors systematically conducted nearly 300 personal interviews with business and professional persons in their community. A number of generally favorable conclusions were drawn. The interview as a technic of social investigation was also examined philosophically by Hubbard (37), who considered background factors, record-making, vocabulary choice, and special uses of the interview.

Field Trips

Several noteworthy studies were devoted to the field trip as a community source of learning experiences. Among these Smith's doctoral dissertation (94) is primarily important. He organized a "Harlem Seminar" whereby forty-six graduate students were introduced to Negro life and problems at firsthand. Members of this experimental group, as well as others of a comparable control group, were given social distance attitude tests before and after the seminar, and also ten months later. Interviews with members of the experimental group were also held. The findings are impressive. Favorable attitudes toward the Negro markedly increased in the experimental group, and this increase continued almost a year later.

A practical handbook of procedures and case examples to assist elementary-school teachers in planning, conducting, and following up science field trips was developed by Pitluga (78). In similar vein but broader scope the New York State Education Department (65) published an elementary-school teachers guide to sources and resources thru which pupils might fruitfully explore their environment.

The relative value of community field experience compared with classroom study was tested by Meshke (52) in the area of homemaking, and by Bonney (6) and Zerfoss and Moore (119) in that of psychology. The findings of all three studies bore out previous reports indicating the superior effectiveness of firsthand experience as a teaching medium (2, 24, 84). Curtis (22) reported an experiment in which the excursion was used as a summarizing device to promote understanding of content material taught in the classroom. He concluded that altho the excursion added to pupils' understanding of the several subjects tested, too much should not be expected from it. The small population and relatively low reliability of the writer-constructed tests were obvious limiting factors in this experiment.

It is widely believed that individual growth in democratic behavior is among the major values associated with field study projects. This assumption was objectively tested by Van Til and Raths (111) on a week's field study by a group of high-school junior students. Social distance ratings upon each participating student were made by all of the others both before and after the trip. Tabulated scores indicate that twenty of the twenty-seven students going on the trip showed significant growth in "associated living" and a decrease in "social distance" as a result of their travel experience.

Surveys

A comprehensive descriptive treatment of the occupational survey movement and technics was assembled by the U. S. Office of Education (109). In this study, ninety-six local surveys made between 1930 and 1940 were analyzed, and descriptions of particular surveys, with specific steps to be taken in making any survey, were included. Bibliographies, tabulated findings, and numerous illustrations of schedules, questionnaire report sheets, and the like, enrich this bulletin. New York State also issued a bulletin in this field—a brief working guide to the making of community surveys as a basis for determining needs in vocational industrial education (45).

Community Service Projects and Work Experiences

During the war years there was imperative need for adult labor on farms and in commercial and industrial establishments generally. Since adolescents could help meet this labor need, many high schools adjusted their instructional programs in order that students might do community work and yet remain in school. The literature indicates that three chief types of adjustment were made: (a) programs of part-time school and part-time

work, (b) modification of school curriculums in terms of seasonal work need, and (c) development of more directly vocational school courses. Such adjustments were most widely reported from California, and for that state have been described and to some extent evaluated in two symposiums (8, 9), as well as by Couper (21) and by Holtrop (36). San Francisco's program was interpreted by Warren (113), Oakland's by Brown (7), San Diego's by Kearney (42), and Philadelphia's by Mason and LeSuer (48) and by Kindred (43). Farm work projects for Chicago city boys were described by Phelps (76). For the college and university level, Smith (95) reported a descriptive study of the various school-community work programs, while a commendable college experiment in combining work and study was described by Yarrow (118).

Some noteworthy general analyses of work experience were presented by McClusky (50), Joyal and Carr (41), Cocking (15, 16), Leonard (47), Jacobson (38), Jacobson and Dodds (39), Troyer (105), and by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (62).

How widespread were these work programs? To answer that question, Gilbert (26) sent a questionnaire in October 1943 to the one hundred largest American cities. Replies from sixty-six of these cities showed that paid work experience programs were generally then in progress. Some specific findings were that (a) over half of those school systems allowed credit toward graduation for work experience, (b) nearly two-thirds designated a special school agency or representative to arrange the program, (c) 72 percent of the schools sponsored cooperative education projects, (d) most paid work was done after school and on week ends, (e) schools felt they lacked sufficient control over the work program, and (f) over one-third of these schools expected to continue cooperative work programs after the war.

Despite the popularity of these programs, little objective evaluation of their educational worth has been reported. Three attempts in this direction may be noted, however, all of which assembled subjective opinions as a basis for appraisal. In California, McDaniel (51) evaluated the 4-4 plan of work experience by means of an opinion questionnaire presented to participating students, parents, employers, and school personnel. Unqualified approval was given by 100 percent of the students, 95 percent of their parents, 92 percent of their employers, and 74 percent of the school personnel. In Illinois three cities cooperated with Rotarian groups to conduct an experiment in work experience. As reported by Weber (114) sixty-nine high-school seniors were enrolled in work-study projects, each lasting one semester. At the end of that period the students, the employing Rotarian teachers, and the parents agreed that the experiment was very valuable because it (a) gave students status as individuals, (b) enlarged their understandings, (c) taught them how to get along with people, (d) gave them self-confidence, (e) provided vocational guidance, and (f) taught them the value of work and responsibility.

Also in Illinois Phelps (76) reported an experiment designed to test

the effectiveness with which teachers could judge the ability of city boys doing summer farm work to make good on the job. A rating scale on work habits and attitudes was used whereby each boy was rated by his supervising farmer and also by his teachers. According to the findings (a) three-fourths of the boys were very successful, (b) farmers rated boys higher than did teachers on a majority of items, if the boys were "good," but lower than did teachers if the boys were at fault, and (c) the teachers' composite ratings had definite predictive value.

School as a Community Center

Another marked effect of the war effort was the widespread public use of local schools as community service and civic centers. Recent research on school and community use of the school plant was summarized by Seidlin (91) in terms of changing processes, regulations governing use of plant, and actual use made. Harrington (30) cited specific rulings in many states, both by school law and by court decision. West (116) reproduced typical election blanks, schedule of changes, rules and regulations, and the like, whereby public-school buildings in one community are used by many local groups. Colorado schoolboard policies regarding community use of school buildings were reported in some detail by Grieder (29) who found that five-sixths of the local communities open their schools to political meetings and 50 percent to religious worship services, but that 15 percent exclude public dances, reactionary groups, and commercial organizations and enterprises. Grieder also reported that (a) only one-fourth of the communities had a written code of policies governing school use, (b) in half the schools replying the building custodian received extra pay for his services to community groups, (c) only one-fourth expect a member of the school staff to be present when outside groups use the plant, and (d) 27 percent make no charge for the outside use of auditorium, gymnasium, or other school facilities. The Newark, New Jersey, plan was described by Herron (34), who reported that thirty-three of the seventy school buildings in that city were operating as recreation centers twelve months per year, and that both recreation teachers and full-time supervisors were employed to conduct the program.

Community Coordination To Meet Youth Needs

Illustrations of recent community councils and other cooperative activities, with a listing of basic principles, were presented by Prall (81), by the Michigan Council for Adult Education (53), and by the U. S. Office of Education (107). Advanced types of community problems that might be attacked by cooperative community projects were outlined by Nelson (64), who gave step-by-step procedures for successful practice. Plans and specific programs of community coordination for youth services were described for the local, state, and national levels in one complete issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology* (40). An illustrated brochure issued by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation (110) reported one cooperative community program

for improving schools on a countywide basis. New York State issued a manual for community participation in educational planning (66). Community coordinating projects for specific problem-processes were reported by Pope (79); for the field of distributive occupations by Anderson (1); and the National Vocational Guidance Association (63) for the guidance field; and by Landreth (44) and Moffett (57) for health. Some of the leadership principles that need to be used in coordinating the services of various social agencies were well identified by Goodykoontz (27).

Educating Teachers and Others for Community Leadership

Two national surveys of teacher education for community leadership have recently been reported. Olsen's questionnaire study (71) found that about one-third of the fully accredited teacher-educating institutions were offering their students some type of introduction to the philosophy, programs, procedures, and problems of community-centered education. Such experiences included academic courses, workshops, special units in conventional education courses, and various opportunities for individual participation in local service projects. Complementing Olsen's comprehensive and quantitative survey was Blackwell's selective and qualitative study (5). He described in some detail sixteen leading community-understanding programs operating in as many institutions engaged in teacher preparation. He concluded that no single study technic is sufficient, but that all can be valuable under appropriate circumstances.

Plans for a comprehensive attack on the problem of improving rural living thru the schools were described by Tidwell (103). In this experiment, teachers and school administrators in six Alabama counties, in active cooperation with the state university, met and studied together for six weeks the problem of meeting more effectively some of their communities' educational, physical, social, economic, moral, and spiritual needs. Since Tidwell's account described merely the planning technic, no actual results in terms of community experiences or effects were included.

Prall and Cushman (82) described how teachers in three different school systems discovered community resources, planned means for integrating school instruction with community living, and worked cooperatively toward that end. A New York State Teachers College (68) outlined the process whereby a group of twelve teachers, under professional guidance, spent two weeks analyzing contrasting local communities. It was reported that as a result of this field experience, the teachers (a) successfully developed new technics for using the community as a learning laboratory, (b) deepened their awareness of local social problems, and (c) followed up previous personal interest in particular aspects of community life. The same institution also reported (67) how it regularly conducts shorter community study surveys for undergraduate students, and concluded that such group resident field studies (a) provide dynamic information about the operation of social, economic, and political forces; (b) develop student insight into the teacher's wider role; (c) constitute a valuable laboratory ex-

perience in human relationships; and (d) stimulate wholesome personal attitudes toward people generally.

An experiment in which a teachers college research bureau worked in close cooperation with many teachers and school systems to develop curriculum programs centered in the needs and problems of people was described by Laton and Meder (46). Following analysis and local community surveys, these teachers reorganized their science courses and curriculums on an experimental basis. Controlled appraisal of student learning under these experimental programs showed that for such students there was no difference in their mastery of subjectmatter, but that they consistently made higher scores on noninformational tests such as the use of scientific methods and the like.

How lay citizens cooperated with their schools for better community planning in the rural schools of Wisconsin was described by Ragsdale (83). In this program interviews and field trips were arranged, surveys were made and reported, and local histories were written. As a result, school programs changed, business policies altered, church activities extended, and local government was made more functional. Suggestions for training teachers and community leaders in methods of community study were reviewed by Taba (102) on the basis of a self-survey made by school teachers, administrators, and lay members of the community, under the direction of ten University of Chicago instructors. Practical ideas for educating teachers in community study procedures and for fitting them to participate in community life were offered by Trout (104) and by Saunders (86). Sutton (101) explained and Moehlman (55) warned against one summer project whereby teachers gained firsthand industrial experience.

New light on the whole problem of the teacher's community status was shed by Snyder (96) in his doctoral study of educational inbreeding. In contrast to the prevalent conception that the teacher is typically a "sociological stranger" in his community, Snyder found that local people actually predominate as teachers in many communities, including nearly all large cities. This conclusion, so sharply at variance with previous reported studies (19, 28), suggests that factors other than sociological nonresidence may account for the typical teacher's personal aloofness from the dynamic currents of community life. In this connection, Hill's analysis (35) of teacher-public relationships may prove suggestive as a basis for further investigation.

Trends and Needs

During the past decade dominant American school theory and practice has moved steadily in one direction—toward ever closer and more functional relationship with the supporting community. In this progression, at least five definite stages of development can be discovered: (a) school indifference to the community, (b) classroom study about the community, (c) student field observation of the community, (d) occasional direct student participation in community activities, and (e) sustained

faculty-student contribution to the improvement of community living. Altho some educators neither accept nor approve this expanding conception of what the schools should do, the basic trend is nevertheless marked and is not likely to be diverted or reversed in our time. As we now face the Atomic Age it is socially imperative that older conceptions of education receive further study even as newer frames of reference require thorogoing analysis.

How can the educational and social values of war-borne community service and work projects be achieved by all American youth within a peacetime economy? In what ways can the local community-school movement of the 1930's best be integrated with the intercultural education needs of the 1940's? How can the school program be fruitfully linked with its local community without developing attitudes of provincialism at the very time in history when actual international unity is so imperative? In what respects should the conventional school calendar be changed to permit students and faculty to make vastly extended field studies both within and outside their nation? How can the taxpaying public best be led to accept and finance student community study and participation as a part of their standard curriculum programs? What specific types of training and experience should be required of community-school teachers, and how can such abilities best be developed on both the preservice and the in-service training levels? How can nonschool community agencies and institutions be brought to recognize their fundamental responsibility for sharing creatively in youth education? Such are some of the challenging school-community areas as yet quite unexplored by research workers. Those interested in relating school instructional programs more closely with community life needs will find that these and other similar problems represent highly significant avenues of service to education and democracy in our time.

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CHAPTER VII

The Family, Education, and Child Adjustment

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General Trends

Emphasis on the whole child interacting with the whole environment, the increasing awareness of the influence of cultural factors, and emotional climate of the family mentioned in a previous survey by Remmers and Gage (78) were very noticeable trends in the last three years. Interrelationships of various factors in their effect on the child's adjustment have been emphasized especially. Increasing detail has been provided concerning qualities important in parent-child relationships. The value of being with the parent, even tho other factors usually considered important were lacking, was evident in reactions of British children to war situations such as bombing. For children in other countries and in the United States previous conclusions about significant family influences continued to be pertinent in wartime.

Burgess (23) has considered the growing change from the institutional type of family to the companionship type as one of the fundamental transformations accelerated by the war. In predicting postwar problems of the family the same author (24) included economic readjustments, housing, family disintegration, and child behavior as influenced by a war period of less guidance. Mead (66) and Wolpe (98) also considered postwar adjustments. Folsom and Bassett (39) discussed the narrowing of the family role by technical and psychological advances but emphasized its increasing intensity.

Discussing research methods Rockwood (82) referred to application of the principle of interaction to contemporary family life as the most pronounced trend in family-life research during the last fifteen years. Few reports of thoro research on the family have appeared in the past three years. In reviewing studies of children and war Jersild and Meigs (53) reported a lack of systematic and scientific data.

Among books on the family which have appeared during the three-year period are those written by Bowman (17), Folsom and Bassett (39), and Foster (40), a symposium by Becker and Hill (7) and one by Wood and Mullen (99). Many of these were characterized by selection of subject-matter for interest and practical value and have incorporated research findings. An exposition of educational processes used with children in changing communities was presented by Bruce and Freeman (22). Significant of an increased interest in young people's attitudes before marriage on the subject of parenthood were books by Drummond (35) and Rockwood and Ford (83).

A number of publications reflected the interest of a variety of fields in the subject of family influences on the child. A publication on religious

education (95) included a symposium concerning the family in transition. An issue of a legal series (19) on children of divorced parents predicted increased divorce in the postwar period and stressed the need for an inter-professional approach. Several reports on psychosomatic medicine stressed relationships between physical conditions and emotional tensions, many of which were related to the home situation (32, 36, 87). Richardson (80) advocated establishing a means of studying the equilibrium of the family unit in its adjustment or maladjustment to illness.

Bibliographies

In addition to the bibliographies in the books previously mentioned, others in specialized fields included references on the child and the family. Books on child development by Breckenridge and Vincent (21) and by Hurlock (49) contained extensive bibliographies. Perkins (74) surveyed literature on family adjustment; Havighurst and Davis (47) on child socialization. Goodenough (43) listed bibliographies on the influence of the family on various aspects of child development. Elsewhere the same author (44, 45) referred to the preschool child and parent education. Groves (46) listed references of general interest. Duvall's (37) bibliography concerning soldiers' return home considered effects on children. Several lists pertained to children and the war (1, 26, 31, 52, 53, 70).

War and the Family

Research studies showed that the war had created no essentially new problems for children, but had intensified the old and made more clear the role of parental attitudes and intrafamilial problems in determining behavior. Jersild and Meigs' (53) findings supported peacetime generalizations concerning the importance of family ties and the influence of parents' emotions on children's reactions. In their presentation of case histories of English children Freud and Burlingham (41) emphasized the strain of separation from parents by evacuation. Similar emphases were made by Bodman (11), Towle (94), and McClure (62).

Chess (25) in a study of the war ideologies of children in the United States concluded that the greatest threat to children was not personal destruction but sudden separation from their family. This threat of possibility of separation from home was the main anxiety factor found by Bender and Frosch (8) in a study made in a hospital group of children aged seven to thirteen years. Davis (29) concluded from a study of children seen in an institute for juvenile research that war conditions which altered internal family relations affected the emotional life of the child. Effect of war separation on father-child relations was reported by Igel (50).

Effects of war on children in different countries were reviewed by Despert (31, 33) and Mercier and Despert (67). Lerner and Murphy (59), in addition to their summary of comments concerning children in Holland, reported for children in United States both constructive and destructive influences of wartime situations in families. A study by Levy (61) also

showed that being at war had a stabilizing influence as well as disruptive influence on family life. His study, based on samples from various parts of the country, found families drawn more closely together by such factors as increased interest shown by fathers and sons, by privations shared together, and by more plentiful employment. These same factors at times had disruptive effects. Kostenbader (56) thru a questionnaire given to 268 seventh-grade children found indications that these children were not seriously perturbed by the war and that their home situations had improved. Wartime work adjustments by mothers in farm families were viewed by adolescent children as having slightly favorable effects according to Stott (91).

Effects of war on family life have been presented by Bossard (13) and by Burgess (23). Many publications were in the form of descriptions of what was happening in families. Meyer's (68) report of visits to twenty-six American war centers frequently referred to effects of war mobilization on children and families. Specific detail concerning family situations to which the father returned after absence was described by Hill (48). Foster family adjustments of refugee children were reported by Wasserman and Resek (96).

Measuring Family Environment

Anderson (2) emphasized the need for long-time studies of the effect of environment on the person and recommended investigation of variability in resources, incentives, and constraints. He used discipline as his illustration in a discussion of a home environmental complex whose multi-dimensional picture should include measurements of quality, intensity, consistency, and pervasiveness.

Rockwood (82) referred to sociometric and case study methods of investigating interaction as the most frequently used in recent years. Other writers placed emphasis on the study of interaction of forces by a process other than study of a single individual. Bossard (15) and Bossard and Boll (16) used factual material from studies of specific family situations. As an example of such a method (14) the family situation studied was family table talk. In this study structure, process, and cultural content of social situations in the family were considered.

The importance of rural as well as urban samples was pointed out by Stott (90). He reported differences in findings on parental attitudes and practices and on adjustments of only children in rural and city homes. Davis (30) stressed the value of a sociological study of the manner in which adolescents are handled in various cultures.

Parent Knowledge and Attitudes

Differences in parental attitudes according to social class were indicated by Davis (28). These differences concerned permanency of family group and amount and type of parental supervision in lower-middle class as compared with lower class Negro families. Using the Cuber-Pell situa-

tional methods with 888 persons, Jones (54) reported sex and religious but not educational differences in moral judgments relative to the family.

In addition to these studies of factors affecting parental attitudes and practices, frequency of particular practices was studied. Defects in companionship and discipline were reported most frequently by 300 fathers whose attitudes toward·their own fathers, their wives, themselves, and their children Gardner (42) studied thru a fifty-item questionnaire. Praising and displaying affection, altho judged to be desirable technics, were infrequently observed by Lafore (57) in her study of practices of twenty-one parents in dealing with preschool children at home. She found negative practices on the part of parents followed by signs of disturbance in the children.

In the area of relationships between parents' attitudes and children's behavior Read (77) reported child behavior unrelated to parents' expressed attitudes regarding desirable child behavior but related to liberalism in their views on parental control. Laschinger (58) found a significant relationship between changes in children's behavior and alterations in their mothers' attitudes.

Telford and Bublitz (92) gave an objective test of principles in the field of child psychology to 300 parents to determine which principles were inadequately understood. Rhinehart (79) reported that twenty-one three-year-olds whose parents attended a parent education program showed more improvement in IQ, routine habits, and measured indication of individual cooperation than did a comparable control group.

The Family and Intellectual Aspects of Children

Stoddard (89) summarized previous studies and predicted important new formulations in the field of intelligence testing, such as a radical revision in the norms and standards for mental tests, when homes and schools give the child what he really needs at all ages from the first year upward.

Edmiston and McBain (38) reported a multiple correlation of .84 between intelligence and background scores and school achievement. This indicated economic improvement unaccompanied by social enhancement will not raise the level of pupil achievement. Bradway (20) from a test-retest study of 138 children at a ten-year interval concluded that significant changes in IQ from the preschool age to junior high school were related to home status and factors in the environment. Mediocre success and maladjustment in children of high intelligence retested after an average interval of eleven years were attributed by Thom and Newell (93) to family instability or unfortunate environmental conditions. Skodak and Skeels (86) found no evidence of deterioration of IQ in 139 children placed in adoptive homes and tested three times in seven years.

Jackson (51) made a survey of psychological, social, and environmental differences between 300 advanced and 300 retarded readers, all but six of whom had IQ's above ninety. His survey revealed the need for greater

attention to the extraneous factors influencing reading success, such as home conditions and personality traits. Intelligence levels in relation to economic, geographic, socio-anthropological, and personality factors were examined by Kobler (55). Berdie (9) in summarizing information available concerning the determination of vocational interests considered the family as one of the social determinants. Woods (101) reviewed twenty-two studies on the social and emotional adjustments, the economic backgrounds, interests and hobbies, educational achievements, and consistency of the superiority of the mentally gifted group.

The Family and Development of Child Personality

Methods of study emphasizing interrelationships in personality and findings supporting the significance of family influence characterized reports from three studies where data covered a period of years (63, 81, 84). Roberts and Fleming's (81) study of intensive case histories of twenty-five college women indicated more persistence than change in traits from childhood to adulthood. Both case studies and statistical analyses showed personality related to the kind of relationships existing in the home. In the Harvard Growth Study of school children Sanford (84, 85) reported on personality structure and patterns of family press. Syndromes were constructed from groups of significantly intercorrelated variables. Family press syndromes such as those called tight control, acceptance, unstable home, and disappointed parental idealism yielded correlations with personality and physical syndromes.

Macfarlane (63), in presenting material from the Child Guidance Study in California, included a section on family variables in the preschool years. Sample findings were classified as normative, relational in the statistical sense, and clinical. Marital adjustment of parents correlated more highly and consistently with behavior and personality difficulties of preschool children than any other family variables. Where the number of unfavorable aspects in the home was large, the child was more apt to show signs of disturbance.

Baruch and Wilcox (6) in a study of seventy-six preschool children found the children's adjustment significantly related to interparental tensions over sex, lack of consideration, inability to talk over differences, and lack of expressed affection. Meyers (69) reported reaction of the child to conflicting authority in an experimental situation related to parental attitudes. Patterson (73) found correlations of Bernreuter scores of the mother with ratings of parent-child behavior in general low but consistent. The same author (72) reported correlations low and not significant, when Bernreuter scores of mothers were correlated with child behavior ratings.

Studies of children with behavior difficulties gave further evidence of the influence of the parent's adjustment as an individual as well as his attitude toward the child. According to Beron (10) twenty fathers who had brought aggressive sons to a guidance clinic tended in their own personali-

ties toward inadequacy, insecurity, and passivity. Most of the mothers of these aggressive sons were dominating or depreciating toward both sons and fathers. Levy (60) reported the results of the study of 2000 case records of more than 100 hours of contact per case. He pointed out relationships between parental roles and attitudes, maternal overprotection, rejection, and various behavior problems of children. Martin's (65) conclusion that many children's problems were created by parents' attitudes was based on interviews with 3000 ten-and-one-half-year-old boys and girls. Cummings (27), using information on 239 subjects, found that overprotected children showed more "nervous" difficulties while neglected children were more aggressive, cruel, and given to lying and stealing. Banister and Ravden (4, 5) compared the homes of 112 children referred to a clinic with those of ninety-three nonclinic children. Fewer of the latter group had broken or discordant homes and more of them had strongly developed interests, hobbies, and social activities.

More satisfactory adjustment and behavior in junior colleges were found by Woolf (102) in 106 girls with excellent home adjustment. Woodruff and Mull (100) also reported on the relation of home adjustment to social adjustment in college.

The following studies selected for consideration a particular aspect of the family and of the child. The socio-economic aspect of the family received attention frequently. Bonney (12) found social success as measured by pupil choices significantly related to socio-economic status of the family and to intelligence. The economic status of the home was related to play interests in only nineteen of 216 possible differences in preference studied by Boynton and Wang (18) in 1800 fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade children. Portenier (75) questioned whether underprivileged status of the family was in itself an explanation of children's problems in nursery school. Socio-economic status in terms of parental occupation was the basis for grouping 319 sixth-grade children by Maddy (64). Children of the semiskilled occupational group showed less extroversion and a greater number of worries, but other attitudes such as disapprovals and interests showed small occupational differences.

In addition to socio-economic factors the following specific aspects of the family received attention. Frequency of family quarrels was related by Punke (76) to economic matters, social life of the child, and parents' personal habits. The relation of parent-child conflicts to historical and cultural setting, pioneer mores, and dependency of the aged was reported by Dinkel (34) in fifty Minnesota families. Traits of age alone did not provide adequate explanation for conflicts. In an analysis of Chapin Social Participation scale scores of 1176 farm families Anderson (3) found social participation of an individual tended to be a function of social participation of his family. Using an inventory of social attitudes, Stagner (88) compared a group of young people with active radical attitudes with a control group of college men. The radicals had less satisfactory relationships with parents and lower personal morale or self-satisfaction. In a study of

responses of 435 college men to a checklist and questions Winch (97) found a slight tendency for the mother-son relationship to have greater importance in influencing courtship behavior than the father-son pattern. Nimkoff's (71) study of children's preference for father or mother was based on analysis of published autobiographies. Preference was for the parent who was most companionable and least censorious.

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CHAPTER VIII

Interrelations of Education and Democracy

GEORGE W. HARTMANN

This chapter aims to digest the representative literature appearing in the United States during the war years 1942 to 1945 concerned with the broad topic of "educational forces toward democracy." Compared with the areas of scholarship, this material is characteristically vast, vague, repetitious, and unobjective, despite the fundamental importance of the problems therein considered. Journalistic exhortations and emergency reaffirmations rather than sharp analysis and substantial empiricism continue to be dominant as in the decade of the Thirties; nevertheless, there is a growing minority group of studies devoted to the concrete details of democratic behavior and to the appraisal of conditions and devices for making individual and group conduct more authentically democratic. That this is a desirable direction for intellectual effort in this area to take appears unquestioned.

As in all situations involving reciprocal connections, two types of problems are logically distinguishable: First, what are current school activities contributing to the attainment of a more satisfactory (a) political (b) economic, and (c) social democracy? Second, how are the special cultural influences particularized as social, economic, and political factors affecting educational institutions so that internally and functionally these respond to such forces by becoming progressively democratized? Altho an emerging region of consensus is noticeable, the prevailing picture is marked by lack of clarity or agreement as to aims and a corresponding, but somewhat reduced, obscurity as to means.

A convenient grouping of studies may be made on the following basis: (a) conceptual analyses, (b) experimental reports, and (c) educational applications. This pattern will be followed here.

Conceptual Analyses

Typical of the approach of those who view social integration as a biological process is the position of Child (17) that in a mature organism there is a change in the character of physiological dominance and coordination from the autocratic toward the democratic type. The analogies here are not noticeably persuasive since the biochemistry of simple adaptation and the interdependence of all living creatures do not necessarily imply any inherent superiority of "democratic" forms—a term that acquires its special meaning from the context of a fairly complicated group life.

More rigorous is treatment of the alleged ties between science and democracy by McKeon (42) who sees the issue in the light of the history of philosophy. He holds that something like a "transfer" error has occurred

leading to the unproved assumption that being democratic, we are scientific and vice versa; and believes there is an urgent need for discriminating between scientific method with its technics of discovery and proof and the democratic process marked by the ultimate submission of issues to decision by majority vote. History does indicate that major scientific advances may occur in nondemocratic cultures.

Fitch (26) claims that the basic problem of an "experimental democracy"—as distinct presumably from a dogmatic or extremely theoretical one—is always that of determining anew the *areas* of freedom and control, and the *degree* and *kind* of freedom and control that should exist in any one area. The technic recommended is that of constant adjustment or search for an ever-changing optimum proportion of freedom to control. A related view is that expressed by Merriam (43), the political scientist, to the effect that governments are no more incompetent or unethical than other social groups, but they are made the scapegoat for society's inability to solve chronic social problems based on deeply rooted human relations.

Leibholz (36) examines the clash between the allegedly conflicting ideals of liberty and equality; oddly enough, he omits consideration of the equally vital and reconciling standard of fraternity. This formulation may be merely another way of designating the persistent tension between the political pattern and the socio-economic system. There is a constant danger of a paradoxical authoritarian or dictatorial democracy, i. e., one wherein by "free will" of the majority, the united power of the state is directed against all dissenting minorities. Defeatism about democracy is said by Alexander (3) to be based on a combination of economic insecurity and an emotional-regressive trend for dependence. "Defeatism," however, is ambiguous since there is a sharp distinction between hostility and mere skepticism. A similar psychiatric terminology is used by Lasswell (35) in his position that of the three main results of public opinion—adjustment, catharsis, and violence—only the first is consistent with democracy. The tendency to identify or to correlate democracy with most or all of the acceptable virtues and values is pronounced and there seems to be some danger of overstating the case. This is recognized by Golightly (29) who indicates that the low "democratic" morale among the colored is really high pro-Negro morale, the apparent contradiction being attributable to this race's comparative lack of experience with genuine democratic life.

Adams (1) advances the interesting thesis on methodological grounds that the common good *is* the individual good and not that it should merely take precedence over it. To the extent that this viewpoint prevails in any society, that society is democratic. There is a puzzle here somewhere since in principle the common good is certainly not repugnant to the totalitarian apologist. Taylor (54) identifies three aspects of democracy: (a) the individual—the way for every person to be his best; (b) the social—cooperative self-realization; and (c) the cosmic—sharing in creative evolution. In sum, democracy is the most progressive living. These are an impressive set of assertions, but somewhat confusing in that the pain-

fully visible gap between avowed aspiration and demonstrated performance is left unexplained. A similar but slightly more concrete triad results from the efforts of a group of Colgate scholars (2) "to catch the spirit of America, its past, its destiny, its culture, its psychology, and its philosophy." They declare that the fundamental assumption of our national culture is, or ought to be, the conception of the equality of man and the dignity of the individual. From this spring three basic principles: (a) the equal right of all citizens to share in the processes of government; (b) the ultimate object of the social order is the greatest good of the greatest number; and (c) the permanent retention of the nonforfeitable right of revolution. That these abstractions receive a wide measure of verbal assent is undeniable—as is the less comfortable fact that they do not substantially fulfill themselves or unambiguously determine certain preferred types of conduct as a consequence.

Coker's (18) extensive volume of readings in the American political tradition is inductively built around such concrete issues as (a) the problem of locating political control, (b) the lines to be drawn between governmental or public authority and personal liberty, (c) the nature and limits of property rights, and (d) the approved methods of political change. Since all activities are ultimately influenced and determined by political conditions, politics is an architectonic science: it establishes the basic framework within which other affairs must occur. Obviously, if this framework is unsatisfactory, events internal thereto must suffer therefrom. For example, Fromm's (27) brilliant *Escape from Freedom* argues that even loneliness can have dramatic and baneful consequences from the failure of the community to integrate all its members within its institutions. From these obvious shortcomings of existing partial "democracies" arise a flood of suggestions like Bingham's (10) for "streamlining" or modernizing official machinery so that it operates more efficiently, with less frustration for the participants. Implying, altho not demonstrating, that "big business" is basically an anti-democratic force is Brady's (11) discussion of business as a "system of power," a governing of persons outside of and parallel to the conventional agencies of the state.

Reiser (51) maintains that "planetary democracy" requires the intellectual and social unification of the peoples of the world if they are to avoid the new slavery which global technologies are now able to impose. In a kindred spirit, Nearing (46) shows how the democratic struggle with privileged groups continues and offers an "idealistic" brief for extending democracy to embrace the whole world community.

These generalized discussions show that the democratic idea is undergoing steady expansion and increasing specification. The tone of the more frontier criticisms suggests that democratic conceptions are far from adequately operative in such fields as race relations, labor policies, international ties, and the like, although there is surprisingly little tendency to explain these cultural discrepancies in terms of hypocrisy, conscious or otherwise. While there is some recognition that war and unemployment

are not permanently compatible with the pattern of democracy, one rarely encounters the claim that pacifism and socialism are inescapable goals of democratic endeavor, apparently because of a lingering conviction that peace is to be ensured by a monopoly of war-making power and a higher standard of living by a retention of the economics of "free enterprise." On the whole, conservative rather than radical versions of democracy characterize the bulk of the theoretical literature.

Experimental Reports

The use of experimental technics in connection with the study of democratic behavior is one of the outstanding developments of the last decade. Beginning with rather casual observations incidental to other problems in child and social psychology at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, Lewin (39) and his students have succeeded in identifying some of the important differentia of democratic and authoritarian situations. While the special theoretical system of topological psychology is much broader in scope than such applied problems as training industrial leaders, controlling group morale, and the manipulation of personal ideologies, it is perhaps significant of a current trend that Lewin's new Research Center for Group Dynamics has been established at such a leading engineering school as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Bavelas (5) reports an experiment in the rapid retraining of mediocre WPA leaders of recreational group activities into more efficient and democratic leaders by means which altered their interpersonal attitudes and instructional technics. The crux of the procedure was the introduction of a psychological "clinic on the job" with high visible modification of behavior as a result.

Significantly opposed to the common view that "low-grade" individuals cannot be managed by other than semidictatorial means is an experiment by McCandless (40) with two autonomous boys' cottages at the Wayne County Training School. The inmates were allowed almost complete control of their own affairs in sharp contrast to their former experience. Apparently this changed the relationships for the better, increasing the mutual social acceptability of the members. In terms of discipline, the larger amount of child self-determination was helpful in reducing the number of issues that had to be directly settled by dominative technics. Altho there is a certain artificiality about such pseudo self-government, it is indicative of one way to reduce the strain of needless intragroup conflicts. An allied account by Janvier (32) involving an attempt by adolescent girls in an institution to rule themselves appears to have led gradually to a better understanding of the democratic process.

By means of an intricate item analysis, Lentz (37) sought to detect the principal correlates of what he called "democraticness." A list of 480 economic, political, and social-attitude statements was presented to a jury of seven judges; from this list, 50 items were chosen unanimously as being related in some essential way to democratic conduct—22 in a

positive sense and 28 negatively. All 50 items exhibited a positive correlation between majority-mindedness and "democraticness"—not surprising, perhaps, but suggesting that there is a danger of confusing herd-mindedness and conformity with the major variable under consideration. In this respect, Pillsbury's (48) observations are pertinent; he maintains that mass beliefs based on wishful thinking are the most striking phenomenon of modern civilization, and in particular, that hate or rage are far more effective than admiration or love in the arousal of beliefs and attitudes. This presumably "pessimistic" conclusion may be important in calling attention to inherent or natural limits to the evocation of constructive democratic conduct in any aggregate of human beings.

Illustrative of the somewhat irritated conviction that democracy must manifest itself by its works and not be exhausted in protestations of faith are the "field study" volumes by de Huszar (31) and Alinsky (4). The former distinguishes between (a) talk-democracy, (b) consent-democracy and (c) do-democracy—which last he describes in terms of small groups working on the local level to reach specific decisions by round-table discussions. This variety of situational democracy seems well adapted to the handling of limited grievances by means of systematized personal interviews, labor-management committees, and the like; but there is some doubt as to its suitability for broader problems involving large-scale alterations in the basic community pattern itself. Alinsky experimented with "people's organizations" in which he brought together businessmen, churches, labor leaders, and even gangsters to solve common persistent problems of a pathological nature like child delinquency, strike breaking, dirty alleys, poor housing, and economic insecurity. As a technic for energizing and motivating otherwise apathetic groups to assert their mass power this method seems to have been unusually successful. Wilkinson (58) offers some useful run-of-the-mill examples of democratic behavior by individuals which evoke corresponding effects in society.

The scientific and lawful character of the phenomena encountered in the different forms of group organization is emphasized by Lewin (38) in the various pioneer monographs developed under his direction. Autocracy, democracy, and laissez faire exhibit a complex set of relations of similarity and difference not representable by a simple continuum, e.g., systems A and D both possess leaders, D and LF both permit certain freedoms for the group members. On the positive side, there is now ample evidence for the conclusion that group decision provides a necessary background for motivation and that it is easier to change cultural habits and ideologies by dealing with groups than with individuals. In fact, the cliché that only democratic living teaches democracy is strongly reinforced by the implications of the growing literature concerned with group dynamics.

So far as one may venture a tentative appraisal of these experiments, which have usually been confined to relatively small groups of a face-to-face nature, they have aided in establishing the action-correlates of discernible differences in social "climate" or "atmosphere"; but they have

been handicapped by the use of extremely rough versions of democracy as a whole. Each experimenter seems to have begun with either some conventional definition as a guide or a personally selected formula by which the total concept was equated with the particular aspect prominent in his limited piece of research. Much of the behavior actually elicited would have been designated helpful or kindly before it became the vogue to label all good conduct as democratic and all undesirable manifestations of human potentialities as undemocratic. It may well be that the facts support such a neat identification, but forgotten questions of the exact relation between psychology and ethics will have to be effectively revived to prevent some dangerous and premature answers from becoming entrenched in the archives.

Educational Applications

The material centering about the theme of "democracy in education" is literally mountainous, inchoate, and highly uneven in value. One extensive portion might be called protective or defensive literature, for it centers about ways and means for preventing administrators of school systems from exercising a de facto tyranny over the teaching staff. A substantial fraction of the bulletins issued by the American Association of University Professors and the American Federation of Teachers may be so characterized, for the primary concern here is to increase the faculties' control of their own destinies, notably in such areas as academic freedom and tenure, but with a steady pressure for added participation in general institutional and financial policy-making.

Another recognizable segment deals with what may be termed "classroom democracy," i. e., the quality of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil relationships in terms of this standard. The largest division of all seems to center about democracy as itself a subjectmatter of specific instruction or as an implication of overtone of some other context such as literature. Not infrequently one encounters descriptions of activity schools or special pupil projects touching major social issues such as class members' writing their congressmen about compulsory military training. Of necessity, such reports tend to exhibit a miscellaneous quality even tho in bulk they reveal an important social and professional trend.

A major undertaking apparently inspired by an earnest effort to "make democracy work" at least in the sense of direct school aid in community reconstruction has been described by Brameld (12). The village of Floodwood, Minnesota, was surveyed by the small local high school with respect to the social attitudes and information of the inhabitants—all as a preliminary to community and national planning. Individual and social wants were grouped into three areas: (a) economic-political, (b) art and science, and (c) education and human relations; and a general design of what changes these pupils favored in the nation emerged. Apparently examination of the evidence led them to adopt a "fairly strong liberalism" with respect to domestic and international reconstruction, altho the close cor-

relation between students and adults was probably due more to older home and neighborhood influences than to the direct influence of the project itself. There is an assumption, too, that "liberal" means "democratic"—an identity which the phenomenon of "totalitarian liberalism" makes a bit doubtful. Mutations in meaning on controversial topics are often startling and a word can come to mean precisely the opposite of its original import.

Benne's (8) study of authority is an attempt to provide educational philosophy with a defensible democratic version of this concept in place of the widely prevalent authoritarian one. His position seems to be that true or valid authority is by *consensus* of the entire group, not by rule imposed by traditionally private subgroups. "Rule-authority, clearly defined and allocated, if it is properly to perform its important function, follows upon the agreement on broadly common purposes in group life to confirm and maintain the service of the common purposes." A derivative of this is the authority of the expert or bearer of special competence, which, like all authority, stems from the dependence of human beings with many and diverse needs upon the aid of other persons and groups possessed of greater resources for meeting those needs. Since consensus can rarely be of the 100 percent variety, Benne's system still leaves the problem of the conscientious dissenter who cannot be effectively integrated with a group purpose which violates a minority philosophy.

Wrightstone and Campbell (59) in a volume devoted to the social studies and the American "way of life" attempt to supply a guide in day-by-day planning of such social experiences for pupils and teachers as will illustrate and emphasize national ideals. Most of those ideals are general human ideals not peculiar to the North American continent, some of which appear to be even better realized elsewhere. But the notion of regular practice of standards to which one professes loyalty is certainly in harmony with the best Jamesian psychology of habit.

Miller (44) has summarized the major principles requisite to democracy in educational administration and emphasized the importance of practice in conformity therewith. Some correlation between maxims and actual behavior probably exists, but a more refined analysis of the reasons for the many discrepancies is greatly needed. Schneideman (52) approaches a related but broader problem from the standpoint of the classroom teacher by developing the use of "modern" educational technics to promote general democratic behavior via the school. Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb (57) show what has been the factual answer of institutions of higher learning to the question, Who shall be educated? They demonstrate again by a variety of case studies the central place of the upper schools in our system of status and the unequal opportunities that continue to prevail. They call for a more genuine recognition of ability in every individual and for a corresponding transformation and improvement along democratic lines so that crucial institutions will conform to avowed ideals.

A standardized measure of classroom democracy has been developed

by Pistor (49) with the usual data on validity, reliability, and norms. It is a rating blank of practices and purports to measure relative efficiency in preparing pupils for participation in a democratic society. More efforts along the evaluation path would fill a real research need in this field.

Some of the special service volumes and pamphlets for school use which appeared during the high tide of the war emergency contain a few elements of lasting value, notably the U. S. Office of Education monographs entitled *What Democracy Means in the Elementary School* (56) and *Living Democracy in Secondary Schools* (55). As practical managerial guides these twin documents are exceptionally rich in serviceable suggestions despite the dated character of the inspiration which led to their production originally. The most comprehensive and satisfactory of the semiofficial handbooks for this period remains the special casebook of civic education issued by the Educational Policies Commission under the title of *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (23). Among the state association manuals, the fourteenth yearbook of the California Elementary School Principals (14) is representative of the best performance of this type.

Of necessity perhaps, most approaches to the problem of "universalizing" the democratic ideal thru schooling exhibit a partial or piecemeal attack; for example, Koos (34) proposes to democratize the junior college by expanding their local, public, low-tuition character. Increasing the availability of cultural resources is clearly one aspect of a deeper and broader democracy, but more than popularization of the type commonly recommended is required for its attainment. Everett (24) comes a little closer to the behavioral core when he condemns the American high school as an archaic institution and urges reorganization in accordance with four essential elements: (a) friendliness and mutual respect regardless of differentiating features in the individual; (b) general participation in accordance with abilities in planning, executing, and evaluating group performances; (c) freedom in considering controversial issues; and (d) application of the experimental method of inquiry wherever possible.

Corey (21) stresses the distinction between teaching democracy versus teaching about it. This is reminiscent of James's logical and linguistic contrast between *kennen* and *wissen, savoire* and *connaitre.* Apparently it is a fact that the history of democracy is frequently learned within institutions that are tight little dictatorships. The implications of the following citation are self-explanatory: "Knowing about communism does not make one a communist. Knowing about capitalism does not make one a capitalist. Knowing about Thomas Aquinas does not make one a Thomist. Knowing about Christianity does not make one a Christian." This truism stamps as conceptually incomplete such efforts as Faissler's (25) account of regular assembly programs devoted to the history of the democratic ideology, teaching democracy thru personalities when this means history via biographies of patriots as urged by Moffatt and Craf (45) and Casner's (16) illustration of the possibility of a "group-centered" school replacing even the most advanced "child-centered" school.

Dissatisfaction with the loose thinking and conduct in this area is expressed by Dunn (22) who protests against the word-juggling by which a democracy is automatically any country fighting on the side one favors. Clear thinking and love of truth make such common time-serving versions of democracy thoroly objectionable. Ragan (50) quotes a remark from *Time* (March 13, 1939) that "No U. S. citizens are fonder of praising democracy than the heads of that most authoritarian institution—the U. S. school," and suggests that political democracy, which is but a moving shadow of a deeper mode of national living, cannot long endure without economic and social democracy. He holds the chief deficiency in educators' views of democracy to be their frequent failure to see it as a dynamic process rather than as a finished pattern.

MacIver (41) is disturbed by the community's lack of success in creating a multigroup society without false images of antigroups, i. e., intense prejudices. Our ignorance, played upon by our emotions and our interests, sets up wholly unwarranted images of collectivities of every kind. Consequently, education without a moral goal and a scientific base can hardly be helpful in building a democratic culture. Benedict (7) declares that no educational policies can of themselves make a stable society out of an unstable one. Fundamental commitments are essential if a culture is to avoid teaching many things that must or will later be unlearned.

Brewer (13) urges that the simplest way to teach every child how to "practice democracy" is to help him achieve understandings by which decisions are made cooperatively with one other person. This shift of emphasis to the notion of cooperation also appears in Carr (15) where it is equated with a limited type of self-organization and self-direction by semi-independent groups. Berman (9) similarly maintains that the "let-George-do-it" attitude on the part of committee members is the bane of the usual system of educational representation with its potential misuse of power resulting from the absence of the requisite checks and balances supplied by general participation. Orata (47) recommends the more general use of character tests to supplement subjectmatter achievement measures as evaluative technics if we are really serious about promoting a program of democratic conduct. Gottschalk (30) likewise criticizes the ororverbalization of democracy and asks for a wider recognition of the essential psychological bases of democracy in three major classes of needs: (a) physiological, (b) social or status, and (c) ego and integrative. This paper is representative of a newer tendency to develop the regulative standards of democratic conduct out of the persistent drives of the organism, a disposition which promises to become more prominent in the future.

Goldschmied (28) proposes the establishment of "civic fellowships" or volunteer groups engaging in special government projects—apparently after the pattern of the Quaker work camps—as a corrective for two major defects of representative democracy, namely, (a) propaganda with its mental coercion, and (b) excessive centralization exerting a virtual coercion in default of a better social technic. Studenski and Mort (53)

have analyzed the administrative merits of both local and central systems of control and emphasize the disadvantages of "excess" in either direction.

Useful summaries of what educators themselves think democracy requires of them, and not just of the other fellow, have been made by Justman (33) and Beery (6). The latter was able to identify fifty-two questionnaire propositions which were affirmed by 75 percent of the following groups: (a) graduate students of education, (b) business executives, (c) participants in an essay contest on the meaning of democracy, (d) members of an organization interested in furthering democracy, (e) officers of cooperatives, and (f) members of a farm group. While this method unearths the presence of sharply contrasting views of the ingredients of a democratic community, it also demonstrates the existence of a substantial degree of attitudinal common ground among representative groups within the nation.

Two major annual conference groups have arisen since 1940 to effect a tentative cultural synthesis of the infinitude of ideas which converge on this huge topic. The first and larger is represented by the symposium papers published in successive years since 1941 by the Conference on Science, Philosophy and Religion, in their relation to the democratic way of life (19). These all represent contributions from distinguished American scholars and scientists but the total effect is hardly a unified one. Some have seen in it an effort to impose authoritarian religious values in a scientific age, and a secessionist or dissenting group of philosophical naturalists established in 1944 a rival Conference on the Scientific Spirit and Democratic Faith (20). Its manifesto bears the revealing title of "The Authoritarian Attempt To Capture Education" and is essentially a defensive effort to restate the case for a temperate variety of progressive education.

Retrospect and Prospect

During the last five years, the dominant influence upon the literature concerned with the interrelations of democracy and education has obviously been the unprecedented catastrophe of World War II. Since the worst shocks of this widespread disaster were not borne by the people of the United States, the material produced here continues relatively uninterrupted the type of critical analysis apparently first systematized by *The Social Frontier* (1934-43). The publications which seem to have reached a numerical peak about 1942 have displayed a certain slowing down of strictly theoretical discussion, a mild increase in field and laboratory studies of the processes of "group dynamics," and a marked flood of more or less substantial efforts to test in a variety of ways the possible contributions of formal education to the creation of democratic behavior. While the specific operational significance of all this in the life of the citizen is still amazingly blurred by clouds of intellectual confusion, the methods for reaching the ends implied in the countless discussions of the general problem have plainly moved toward the solid ground of detailed changes in personal conduct.

It is perhaps inevitable that much of the treatment of the interaction of democracy and education should be lacking in evidence of the presence of the apparatus of critical scholarship, for this is inherently a field in which every literate person has been encouraged to be articulate. Of course, expert competence exists in this branch of applied social science as in any other, and genuine or effective research can hardly be done under any other auspices. Current activity in this field would probably benefit if the conceptual analyses of the nature and criteria of democratic behavior (which are still needed to supply the necessary precision to popular notions about it) were written more in the spirit of *multum, non multa.* The ancient criticism that one must read too much to discover anything even modestly novel still applies. Democracy is clearly to a large extent a matter of "unfinished business"; how to complete most satisfactorily what is, or should be, on its agenda requires the sharpest analysis of the most profound social philosopher and not just the unworkmanlike elaboration of fugitive and untested ideas.

The ingenious schemes by which experimental social psychology has invaded this field are most promising, and facilities for more intensive and extensive try-outs should be encouraged. Sociometric studies occasionally exhaust themselves in sheer descriptions of existing group relationships, whereas what is wanted from this experimentation is some guide to a more satisfactory kind of interpersonal influence. Above all, classroom experiments and school-community projects require expansion and strengthening on the technical side. Sometimes it may be necessary to remind workers on these problems that not every form of group action is ipso facto democratic, but that democracy is but one distinctive type of human association, to be preferred to other varieties only when it demonstrably confers more tangible benefits and advantages upon the individuals affected by it.

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INTRODUCTION

THIS ISSUE reviews the research in the areas of language, art, and music published during the past three years. In addition to studies directly related to instructional practices, effort has been made to include pertinent research from the fields of psychology and esthetics because such work not only offers leads of immediate value to teachers and administrators but suggests worthwhile problems for further investigation.

It is encouraging to find that, in spite of the concentration on the war effort, a goodly number of studies have appeared. More than 400 articles in one field were winnowed in order to determine the most significant contributions that could be reported in the allotted space. Altho each study reviewed adds to our growing knowledge of teaching in these areas, there are few comprehensive attacks on the most critical instructional problems. The six final volumes on the *Owatonna Art Education Project* mark a notable exception in that they report an inclusive analysis of the factors which should condition art instruction together with accounts of realistic procedures for reaching the desired goals.

On the basis of research to date, on instruction in art and music especially, and in languages to a lesser degree, the following generalizations are warranted. First, relatively little attention has been given to the final criterion on which instruction should be judged; namely, the changes in behavioral patterns resulting from educational programs. Only scattered indexes, such as an increased attendance at art museums, widespread popularity of daytime serials on the radio, box-office receipts from motion pictures and the legitimate theater, and best-seller lists of literature are available. The degree and direction of educational influence on such patterns is, of course, extremely difficult to ascertain. But until there is evidence on the relation of instructional programs to public taste and participation in the arts, educators will have little knowledge of the effectiveness of their efforts.

Second, the widely held, but narrowly conceived, academic concept of research has hindered progress. Greater effort is often put on achieving scientific respectability than on tackling real problems. Research in the arts is more frequently evaluated in terms of conformity to accepted methodology than in terms of the importance of the problem. When methodology is elevated above usefulness of results, one gets further and further from central problems, nearer and nearer to "research for research's sake." It is not intended to belittle the use of every scientific control and of every advance in quantitative methodology, but it should be pointed out that research is not by definition quantitative. It is believed that when research workers use every known tool of their trade, but do not force their problems into statistical strait jackets, greater contributions will result.

Third, research in the arts is further hampered by the complexity, real or apparent, of the subjectmatter; the lack of research methodology suited

to the field; and the scarcity of personnel trained in research and also versed in the arts. Thus, there is a conspicuous gap between publications which report opinions and assumptions and those which in an effort to be academically respectable have scientifically avoided central and significant problems. These are problems of primary concern to graduate schools and to educational research activities.

Fourth, there is need for coordinated attack on the basic problems of instructional efficiency in the arts. Such matters as the development of a deep, lasting appreciation or the discovery and nurture of creative talent are the subject of countless essays and minor studies but, with a few exceptions, not the subject of comprehensively conceived research. Nor has the attainment of the complex of desirable outcomes of arts instruction—the arousal of interest, the refinement of discrimination, the discernment of values, the enrichment of the emotional aspects of appreciation, the learning of facts, and the development of technical skills—been studied with careful attention to their interrelationships and to their significance at different levels of artistic maturation. Only thru carefully planned, long term research directed toward central issues can instruction in the arts make significant progress. The major question is: Under what conditions do students most effectively attain the goals desired from instruction in the arts? This question should be repeatedly asked until answers are found.

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The Language Arts: General Comment

GRACE COCHRAN

It is to be expected that a survey of the reports dealing with the language arts during the years 1943-45 would delineate trends resulting from pressure due to war conditions; rapid acquisition of foreign languages among the armed services, increased literacy in the fighting forces, more effective speech and other means of communication under crucial conditions, accelerated learning programs of a preparatory nature—all challenged education to produce the most in the least possible time. Altho experimental studies and some long-time investigations have been completed, major emphasis has been directed toward intensive teaching programs.

Such educational adaptation is reflected in various ways in the literature summarized. In some cases there has been a reworking of objectives and publication of restated aims. In others, newly devised methods have been described in detail, accompanied by more or less subjective evaluations of the resultant learning. Typical examples of such publications are the large number dealing with the ASTP programs in foreign-language training. Redefining of objectives was coincident with a stress upon the development of the ability to handle the language in a practical situation and subsequently led to the conception of the linguist-informant method of teaching. Used in its most intensive form in many army classes, modified and adapted to meet demands in both army and civilian situations, this method is being subjected to the most critical scrutiny and the data obtainable only from experimentation are indispensable for objective evaluation. This last fact demonstrates circumstances in several aspects of the language arts. Altho the literature contains many references to experimental method, there are frequent instances in which writers express a desire for the objectivity precluded by the situational conditions. The relative lack of objective evaluation at this stage does not in itself detract from the value of this material which was stimulated by the national emergency.

Altho it is difficult to determine with certainty the time at which new developments take place, at least two new approaches which seem relatively recent and promising are indicated. That area to which listening and the listener are central is apparently emerging as a new aspect of communication skills, with the promise of much needed research upon which educational programs may be based. Altho the facilitation of learning thru audio-visual integration is in no sense new to the educational psychologist, the really extensive output in the area of newer and more effective technics in this field makes special mention justifiable.

Possibly one of the most burning issues, to which most of the different aspects of research represented by the divisions of this REVIEW are related, is that of a redirection of education on a very broad base. Can there evolve a general education and if so in what ways are the language arts involved? Traces of such thinking appear especially in the section on communication skills and reading.

CHAPTER I

Research in Reading During the War Years

RUTHERFORD B. PORTER, HUGH SHAFER, AND EASON MONROE

IN WAR as in peace the interests of American educators continue to focus upon problems of reading development. Thruout the three-year period covered by this review, the writers found more than four hundred pertinent titles in the field, approximately half of which reported data resulting from some type of original research. A lower incidence of outstanding investigations and a marked decline in reports during 1945 are the only character- ist'cs noted to distinguish this period of research in reading from that of any comparable span thruout the past twenty years. These concomitants of war do not seriously diminish the over-all contribution which has thus currently been made to the total effort to understand and to promote the reading growth of both children and adults.

In light of publication economies, editorial policies have limited this review in both the number of reports cited and the extent of discussion relative to each contribution. Pressing within the scope of less than five thousand words the treatment which has previously required approximately twenty thousand has been an undertaking of exacting disciplines and difficult choices. In the process of choosing the ninety titles which appear in the bibliography, the reviewers have been forced to omit reference to many important and useful reports.

The selection of the significant research reviewed was made on the basis of two criteria: (a) precise definition of the term "research" and (b) high standard of "significance." Studies which made use of casual, uncontrolled procedures were usually not included unless they presented data or au- thoritative judgment relating to the more critical problems of reading development. Conversely, many well-conducted investigations were omitted when they dealt with problems which are no longer central.

Readers who wish to consult additional sources of critical evaluation of opinion and research in reading will find helpful Gray's regular sum- maries (27, 28) and the reports of the 1943 and 1944 Conferences on Reading (29, 30). For those interested in comparing current trends in reading research with the findings of previous years, Bett's new biblio- graphic index (6) is an important aid.

Literacy

New data have reemphasized the extent and seriousness of adult illiteracy. The pressures of war forced recognition of the fact that millions of Ameri- can adults cannot read well enough to fight a highly technical war, let alone carry on intelligent, informed activities as citizens in a democracy. Brunner (9), assessing cursorily the data which are available from the 1940 census, pointed out that, altho amount of schooling is gradually in-

creasing, at least 13 percent of the adult population are functionally illiterate.

In the military services, the literacy problem was especially acute. It is a modern phenomenon that men who cannot read cannot fight. The efforts of the Army to meet the problem of preparing illiterate men for effective military service were described by Witty and Goldberg (89) and enthusiastically assessed by Witty (90). Thru such programs, thousands of young men, who had previously been denied what most of us consider a democratic birthright, were taught at least the rudiments of reading. Altho they are not yet in the literature, it is likely that reports will soon make available to teachers generally and to adult education specialists particularly the literacy training experiences of the other armed services.

Reassuring data were reported concerning the possibility of developing adult reading. Buswell (29) cited new evidence on the improvement of adult reading. Similarly, Broxson (8) reported significant gains made by 175 adults as the result of a twelve-week program of reading development. In the surveys of adult reading, teachers and school administrators did not escape scrutiny. Simpson (71) found that 50 percent of the twelfth-graders he tested by means of the Iowa Silent Reading Test made better scores than 45 percent of the teachers and administrators similarly tested. In addition, the teachers and administrators reported strikingly irregular reading habits, approximately 40 percent not even having "looked at" a professional book during the month of the study. This is not, of course, the first time that the relatively low reading abilities and immature reading habits of teachers and other school leaders have been exposed.

The over-all significance of these and previously reported data concerning adult reading cannot be too heavily emphasized. It is too much to hope that the many critical social and economic problems which face Americans individually and collectively will find intelligent solution at the hands of a people who have not yet learned to use reading as a way of democratic social action.

The Nature of Reading and Its Relationships

Important research was reported on the nature of the reading process and the relationships among reading and other aspects of human development. Hall and Robinson (33), thru analysis of scores on twenty-five different measures of reading administered to one hundred college freshmen, isolated five discrete factors which they designated as: (a) a study attitude, (b) an inductive factor, (c) a verbal factor, (d) a rate factor, and (e) a chart-reading skill. A sixth factor isolated in this study was not clearly defined. Using the judgment of authorities and specially constructed measures, Davis (14) reported data relative to what he considered nine basic reading comprehension skills. Artley (4) surveyed the evidence from several studies, principally his own doctorate thesis published in 1942, to support the interpretation that reading comprehension is a highly dif-

ferentiated ability. He summarized ". . . the factors inherent in general and specific reading comprehension, tho for the most part related, are not correlated to a sufficient degree to be able to say that the ability to engage successfully in one type of reading is by the same token related to the ability to engage successfully in another type, or that the command of one particular reading skill is by virtue of that fact related to another. . . ." In a later study (5), Artley found varying correlations above .70 between abilities in reading general informational material and those in reading material more specifically related to the social studies field. Whereas he agreed that these fairly high relationships probably mean that, for ordinary instructional purposes, a general comprehension test measures social studies reading abilities adequately, he concluded that there is a high degree of specificity in factors relating to reading comprehension in the social studies.

Four additional studies offered pertinent data on the relationships of the general and specific reading abilities. Analyzing scores of 867 fifth-grade pupils on a specially constructed test battery of mathematical, literary, sociological, and scientific materials, McMahon (54) concluded that, altho the group as a whole showed little variation in ability among the different types of material, the specific reading abilities of individual pupils varied considerably, with greatest variation occurring among pupils whose total test scores were in the lowest quartile. Shores (69) presented evidence that the abilities of ninth-grade pupils are significantly differentiated in the reading of historical, scientific, and literary materials. Treacy (83), in a study of 244 seventh-graders, found differentiation of reading abilities as related to the ability to solve arithmetic problems. Studying the eye-movements of sixty eighth-grade pupils, Seibert (67) found individual and group differences in the reading of various types of material. These findings strengthen considerably the contention that every teacher must be a teacher of reading. The assumption can no longer be held that the improvement of general reading ability will automatically result in the development of the many specialized reading skills which young people need in both school and life.

Two reports concerned the relationship between reading rate and reading comprehension. Blommers and Lindquist (7) found correlations of .30 between rate of comprehension and power of comprehension. Stroud and Henderson (76) reported correlations from .02 to .16 between "speed and learning scores." These new data contrast sharply with the rather commonly held belief that the fast reader is the more comprehending reader. The inconsistency of the findings in this area are perhaps attributable to the varying technics and controls used in measuring reading rate and comprehension. Sweeping generalizations concerning the relationship of rate and power in reading comprehension, especially in individual diagnosis and instruction, seem unwarranted by the evidence thus far developed.

The fallacy of estimating both mental ability, or mental age, and reading competence by means of any single measure was further exposed by reports of Strang (75) and Abbott (1). Strang found that reading scores for a given chronological or mental age often extend thruout the entire range of a test. Abbott found that a reading development program effected change in individual performance on one widely used measure of intelligence, but no change on another. He concluded that there may be wide individual variations in the constancy of IQ.

The Gilberts (24), continuing a long-term project of carefully controlled research, found that college students made significant gains in ability to spell selected words thru the reading of passages which contained these words.

Growing interest in the relationship between reading ability and academic success at the college level was reflected in reports by Humber (36) and Mathews, Larsen, and Butler (55). Both studies reported positive correlations between scholarship and reading ability. Attention in the future may profitably be turned to long-term investigations of scholastic improvement resulting from gains in reading ability.

Reading Adjustment: Causal Relationships

New data concerning causal factors strengthen the already well-established concept of the complexity of reading growth and its multiple interrelationships with all other aspects of human growth. Jackson (39), surveying psychological, social, and environmental differences between advanced and retarded readers, found positive degrees of relationship among twenty different variables and reading retardation. These variables included such factors as sex, IQ, occupation of father, personal illness, school grades, fears, and speech defects. Personality factors, he concluded, are definitely related to reading achievement.

A well-controlled study of pupils in grades III-VIII in a wartime industrial community led Huus (37) to conclude that changing schools does not affect scholastic (or reading) achievement. Samuels (64) concluded that girls have a significant advantage in both reading readiness and reading achievement when boys and girls are paired on the basis of mental age. Summarizing a study of the personnel opportunities of one hundred students at the University of Chicago, McCaul (52) wrote, ". . . the data seem to warrant the generalization that poor reading is merely one of a number of factors—educational, physical, environmental, emotional, social, financial, or vocational—which may be adversely affecting a college student's adjustment at a given time."

The relationship between reading disability and emotional disturbance has been observed repeatedly, and the assumption is common that reading disabilities give rise to personality problems. That the reverse may also be true is not so generally conceded. Hence, it is highly significant that three clear-cut studies appeared which emphasize the *reciprocal* re-

lationship between emotional adjustment and reading achievement and which make more plausible the contention that in many instances reading handicaps result from or are attendant upon basic personality disturbances.

Sylvester and Kunst (77), on the basis of case study analysis, concluded that a reading defect is a single aspect of more comprehensive disturbance in the evolution of psychobiological functions. They held that whenever tutoring succeeds, it does so because the tutor has fulfilled some of the fundamental emotional needs presented by the individual child. Lantz and Liebes (46) found emotional maladjustment present in twenty-eight of thirty-three retarded readers they studied. The data they presented support the hypothesis that in the majority of cases, nonreading may be merely the original expression of a child's inability to respond adequately to average classroom instruction.

Comparing thirty-four retarded readers, thirty-four average readers, and thirty-four good readers, equated in terms of age, IQ, mental age, school experience, and sex, Gann (22) found that the retarded readers show more markedly evidences of emotional disturbance. Retarded readers, she implied, should be considered personality problems as well as learning problems, and reading-development work should involve emotional therapeutics as well as direct-reading instruction.

Future research may establish more positively the "total personality" approach as a regular procedure in reading guidance. That reading clinics do not now give sufficient emphasis to the emotional concomitants of poor reading was observed by Kopel and Geerdes (42), who pointed out that 30 percent of the 41 clinics they studied made no attempt to analyze personality attributes. Those clinics which recognized to some degree the significance of emotional factors in reading disability used neither satisfactory technics for personality diagnosis nor thoro-going procedures for emotional adjustment.

The usual volume of reports on the relationship among visual, dominance, and reading factors was present in the reviewed literature. Conflicting contentions and interpretations were characteristically current in these reports.

Park and Burri (57) presented evidence in support of their conclusion that efficient vision and reading growth are related and that visual immaturity may be responsible for initial reading difficulties. Eames (17, 18) likewise submitted new evidence on the importance of normal vision in good reading and general scholastic adjustment. Dalton (11), on the other hand, as a result of testing by means of the Keystone telebinocular the vision of 5000 school children, concluded that there is no significant general relationship between normal or defective vision and scholastic achievement.

Weber (84), Leavell and Fults (47), and LaGrone and Holland (45) submitted new evidence relative to the dominance controversy. Each of these reports cautiously suggested that there "seems" to be some degree of relationship among the phenomena of reversals, left or mixed dominance,

and reading disabilities. Hildreth (34), conversely, concluded that mixed dominance is not a prevailing factor in reading difficulties. Clearer light than usual was thrown upon this issue by the research and interpretations of Gilley and Parr (25), whose most significant conclusions were that (a) the reversal tendency decreases with maturation; and, (b) emotional imbalance seems to be one of the principal causes of the reversal tendency.

Of special interest among the reports on the visual factor in reading were those of Spache (73, 74), who found interesting individual variations in monocular and binocular reading. Some of the children he studied read best with their "preferred" eye, the next best with their "other" eye, and poorest with both eyes. He made the observation that ordinary reading tests are likely to underestimate the potential reading ability of some pupils.

Thru an investigation of visual and auditory associations, Schmidt (65) discovered that a third of the 308 retarded readers she studied showed decided preference for auditory presentation of material to be learned.

Reading Interests and Attitudes

The effect of the war upon the reading activities of the American people was described in the American Library Association reports for the years of 1943 and 1944 (2, 3). Investing their chief energies directly in the war effort, Americans found less time for reading. The reading done, however, was of better quality, emphasizing interests in world affairs. Despite the highly technological character of the war, technical reading fell off markedly in both 1943 and 1944. A trend toward more normal volume of reading, however, was already in evidence in 1944. Synnberg (78) surveyed the reading activities of 2500 Chicago high-school pupils from average low income homes and found that pulp magazines constituted the overwhelmingly predominant portion of the out-of-school reading of these young people. She concluded that it is fundamentally the home, not the school, that sets the standards for pupils' reading habits. The fact that comic books are somewhat more widely read by Negro children than by white children was reported by Witty and Moore (87). Here the factor of availability appears to be primary, Negro children having limited access to books of better quality than the comics and the other pulp types.

Children's interests in library books of fiction were studied by Rankin (61). Feingold (19) found that newspaper reading is a highly characteristic activity of urban secondary-school pupils. Daniel (12), in a study of the reading interests and needs of Negro college freshmen regarding social science materials, reported preferences among this group for books about Negroes, books related to matters of immediate concern, and books which emphasized sociological rather than economic or political problems. He found a low degree of interest in fiction of strong social significance.

Three significant studies concerned the general problem of reading attitudes. Seward and Silvers (68) investigated belief in the accuracy of

newspaper reports and found that the 209 college women whose reactions they obtained tended to believe propaganda attributed to American sources rather than enemy propaganda, good news rather than bad, and news adverse to its source. The extent to which readers' interpretations are conditioned by the attitudes they bring to their reading was studied by McCaul (53). He concluded that, among pupils in Grades VII-X, boys seem to be more influenced by their initial attitudes than are girls and that pupils tend to be more greatly influenced by their initial attitudes as they advance in grade. The effects of reading fiction upon the attitudes toward the Negro race of a group of southern white children were studied by Jackson (38). She found small, but significant, positive shift of attitude resulting from the reading of a single short story. These modified attitudes, however, proved to be transitory and reverted after two weeks.

Readability

Several studies reported during the period of this review were concerned with the broad aspects of readability. Some of these reports bore directly upon visual reactions in varying typographical situations; others concerned objective technics in the measurement of the relative difficulty of comprehending various reading materials; still others presented evidence on the relative contribution to understanding of contrasted materials.

Continuing a long study of the effect upon reading efficiency of such factors as type size, length of line, and illumination, Tinker (80) reported a study of illumination intensities for reading newspaper type and recommended a light intensity between fifteen and twenty foot-candles for newspaper reading. In another report (81), Tinker discussed, on the basis of new evidence, criteria for determining the readability of type faces. In collaboration with Paterson, he reported several additional studies of visual factors in reading various typographies. One of these reports (58) presented eye-movement data concerning variations in reading efficiency in optimal and nonoptimal typography. A study of the effects of astigmatism on the visibility of print (50) was illustrative of the continuing research reported variously thruout the literature of the period by Luckiesh and Moss.

Significant new technics were reported for the measurement of levels of difficulty in various reading materials. Lorge (49) offered a new formula for the prediction of readability. By this formula, grade level difficulty is computed on the basis of average sentence length, ratio of prepositional phrases to number of words, and the proportion of hard words. On the basis of a careful study of previously devised technics, Flesch (20, 21) pointed out shortcomings in commonly used readability formulas and presented a new formula in which sentence length, frequency of affixed morphemes, and frequency of personal references are used to estimate the comprehension difficulty of a given text. In an investigation of the reliability of sampling of reading material, Leifste (48) found that, to

determine the vocabulary difficulty of a book, a sampling of fifteen selected pages produced adequate results for practical purposes, altho greater accuracy is insured by sampling every tenth page.

Thru a study of the effect of amplification upon comprehension, Wilson (86) found that sixth- and seventh-grade pupils comprehend passages amplified to lengths of 600 and 1200 words somewhat better than they comprehend condensed versions of the same material limited to 300 words. Halbert (32) concluded that children get more relevant ideas from reading a story which is illustrated by pictures than from either the text or the pictures alone.

Of significant interest in the problem of textbook selection were the reports of Kopel (41) and Kopel and O'Connor (43), which set forth and demonstrated the application of twenty-five criteria for evaluating reading textbooks. These criteria are sufficiently comprehensive to serve as guiding principles in the evaluation of the reading program as a whole.

Vocabulary

Problems in the area of vocabulary development were the basis of several studies and outstanding publications. In 1944, Thorndike and Lorge published the latest culmination of their long research in vocabulary frequency, *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (79). This work has already become a basic tool of writers, publishers, and teachers in the preparation and grading of materials for children. Rinsland (62), by means of a nationwide sampling of the writings and conversation records of children in Grades I-VIII developed and published in 1945 "a basic vocabulary of elementary-school children." He found a total of 25,632 different words in a running count of over six million words. In that he used the primary source of children's own writing and speaking. Rinsland has very significantly added to existing tabulations of word frequency, commonly based as these are upon words used in children's books (written by adults) or in adult materials.

A highly important point of consideration relative to word frequency tabulations in general was statistically supported in a study by Davis (15). Despite their many uses, frequency ratings do not accurately indicate the difficulty levels of words. The frequency of its use is not a true index of the difficulty of a word.

Constructing and administering to a group of tenth- twelfth- and fourteenth-graders tests designed to measure their precise knowledge of word meanings in context, Dunkel (16) concluded that the ability to use words precisely is as closely related to comprehension in reading as is vocabulary range. In a comparative study of two technics for teaching a reading vocabulary to first-graders, Pario (60) found no statistical difference between a quick perception method involving the use of meaningful context clues and a more conventional method.

Poston and Patrick (59), upon the basis of an evaluation of word and

picture tests for first- and second-grade pupils, reported wide differences which suggested that tests with and without pictures are not equally or similarly diagnostic. They recommended care in the use of word-recognition and word-meaning tests for the classification of primary-grade children. Gates and Carson (23) found that simple, inexpensive, and informal technics are as effective as expensive and elaborate mechanical devices for the diagnosis of ability to read by phrases or thought units.

In a study of the effect of instruction in mathematical vocabulary upon problem-solving in arithmetic, Johnson (40) demonstrated that mathematical vocabulary instruction leads not only to growth in knowledge of the specific terms taught, but also to growth in the solution of numerical problems involving the use of these terms. Vocabulary gains produced by direct teaching carry over with little loss for as long as two and one-half years, Miles (56) found in a study of vocabulary development at the secondary level.

Hill (35) reported interesting relationships between children's preferences among the various comic strips and the vocabulary of these strips. The vocabulary of the sixteen most popular strips, he found, was mainly in the easier categories—78 percent of all words used were in the Gates reading vocabulary for the primary grades; 79 percent were in the first 2000 words of the Thorndike list. There was, however, little relationship between ease of vocabulary and rank of popularity among the sixteen favorite strips.

A highly useful summary of the implications of army training experience for vocabulary development in regular school instruction was offered by Witty (88). The systematic procedures employed in the army literacy program, Witty pointed out, were based upon principles which have equal promise if consistently applied in regular school work.

Technics and Devices

Four studies were reported which add evidence on the effectiveness of technics in the development of reading ability, especially in the improvement of rate of reading. Westover (85) reported a comparison of the reading achievement of two groups of college freshmen. One group was given regular practice reading during two fifty-minute sessions per week for a period of five weeks. The other group read the same materials, but used a special mechanical device for controlling eye movements. Westover concluded that there was no significant difference in the reading achievement made by the two groups. Smith (72) obtained satisfactory results in the improvement of rate of reading by using a pacing technic of informing the students orally at the moment when each successive group of 250 words should have been read at a specified rate. Danner (13) found rhythmic auditory pacing useful to stimulate increased rates of silent reading.

Cason (10) studied the relative effectiveness of three methods for im-

proving speed of reading: free library reading, phrase-reading instruction, and the Metron-O-Scope exercises. She found, for a group of third-grade pupils, no important differences among the three methods. The very clear and pertinent finding that a highly touted mechanical device yielded no more significant results than regular free library reading made this study highly significant for teachers of reading and school administrators. Somewhat in contrast with this finding is the report by Simpson (70), who found no significant relationship between eye-movement data, obtained by the ophthalmograph, and weekly amounts of free reading reported by 419 college freshmen.

Programs

Successful reading development programs were widely reported. It was possible to review in this writing only a few of these reports which illustrate the types of programs conducted or summarize highly significant experience.

Goldstock (26) described the systematic continuous efforts of one elementary school to provide for the remedial reading needs of primary pupils. Guiler, Murphy, and Coleman (31) submitted new evidence of the effectiveness of special provision to meet the reading development needs of high-school students.

Community-wide emphasis upon the improvement of reading instruction was reported by Kottmeyer (44), who described the program which has been developing recently in the St. Louis schools. The integration of the reading program in the total pattern of education of the "community-school" was described at length in a report by Seay and Meece (66), based upon data growing out of "The Sloan Experiment in Kentucky." Particularly significant in this latter report was the description of the specific reading materials which have been developed to meet the specialized local needs and interests of the children in the "Sloan" schools.

The highly significant report of the Stanford Language Arts Investigation by Roberts, Kaulfers and Kefauver (63) described the cooperative efforts during a three-year period of 151 teachers and administrators in twenty-eight secondary schools to improve instruction in the total area of the language arts. Twenty-five classroom teachers presented discussions of successful teaching projects and experiences and provided pertinent source material for teachers of reading.

A somewhat discouraging commentary on the growth of reading programs among secondary schools and colleges was offered by Traxler (82) in a report of the provisions for reading instruction in secondary schools and colleges holding membership in the Educational Records Bureau. Despite the long-term emphasis upon the critical need for reading programs beyond the elementary school, only 29 percent of the 133 schools represented in Traxler's report made definite provision thru a developmental reading program to meet the reading needs of all their pupils and only

about a quarter of the schools had at least one teacher who gave half time or more to reading guidance.

Summary

With the war years past, students can whole-heartedly resume their investigations of the problems of reading growth. They will find, as the foregoing discussion reveals, a stable bridge of research across the war years, permitting the easier and more vigorous continuation of their inquiries, experimentation, and interpretations in this field of education.

Many unsolved problems yet challenge our attention and concern. Raising the literacy of the American people to the level of social power, eliminating in the lives of children those negative and retarding conditions which prevent them from growing to full adulthood in reading, and building systematic programs of reading development to function in every classroom, school, and community—these are the basic unfinished tasks for teachers, administrators, specialists, and parents. Significant research of the future must bear upon the key problems involved in these major areas of effort.

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CHAPTER II

Communication Skills: Composition, Listening, Radio, Speech, and Related Areas

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RESEARCH in this field during the last three years has suffered the fate of most areas of general or liberal education in the period. Altho there are a few areas which have been stimulated by the war, many workers in the general area of this chapter have curtailed research and its reporting while occupied with other types of wartime work. Workers in those areas especially stimulated by wartime demands have not yet published their studies in any great number. A few highly significant studies have appeared. But the reports reviewed here are for the most part conventional in content and method.

Factors in the three-year period which have had some bearing on the content of this chapter include reports on wartime teaching, publications which have arisen from concern over curriculums and the philosophies of education conducive to new programs, continued increase in the number of studies in various aspects of speech, new plans in the field of radio education, and investigations of listening as an important new concern in the field of communication skills.

The general plan of this report involves a three-fold division of the field. It should be noted that there is some overlapping of units in the areas of the classification. The first division includes the fundamental skills. Here reports are cited on such matters as the mechanics of writing, vocabulary, voice and articulation, and personal adjustment of the speaker. The second division includes investigation of types of communication activities such as radio, public speaking, journalism, and writing. The third division includes studies on factors such as teacher training, evaluation, wartime programs, and bibliographies. Altho research in reading problems is allied to the areas of communication reported here, such research is reported in Chapter I of this volume.

THE FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS

Mechanics of Writing

Most studies of elementary writing have stressed the development of mechanics. Mathews (108) investigated the relationship of reading to writing skills. Students who do inferior work in composition were reported as having poor reading ability. Training in reading not only improved reading skills but also appeared to influence growth in grammar and mechanics of writing as much as did specific practice and training in writing. The work of Wykoff (172) casts doubt on the assumption that writing skill can be evaluated only in terms of practical samples. His study indicated

that students with a knowledge of usable grammatical terms and principles of punctuation belong to a group which will write better themes at least 90 percent of the time than students with a smaller amount of such knowledge. Both of these reports point to the value of observing and understanding principles of grammar and punctuation in testing and developing these skills. Kaulfers (81) studied the need for a functional interpretation of grammatical principles. Carlton and Carlton (16) and Eaton (30) also reported data which show sociological interpretation of language achievement.

The intercorrelations of parts of the cooperative English test A: Mechanics of Expression, Form R was studied by Traxler (155) who recommended that separate scores should be computed on the parts—grammatical usage, punctuation, and capitalization—for purposes of diagnosis, reteaching, and counseling. Other error studies were reported by Rothenberg (131) and Lumsden (101). Karp's (79) study revealed greater value of individualized instruction for those who rate high on pretests of mechanics of English composition than for those who rate lowest on pretests.

Vocabulary

Two new major vocabulary studies have appeared. Thorndike and Lorge (150) have published an extension of the 1921 and 1931 Thorndike word lists. Rinsland (129), as noted in Chapter I, has published the first raw word frequency count for each grade. A study by Fossum (40) revealed no significant relationship of the size of the speaking vocabulary of college students with test scores of intelligence, vocabulary, or speech ratings. He reported a method of determining features of oral word counts and an oral word list of words most frequently spoken. Hargis (59) studied the vocabulary of radio programs. His study indicated a larger and more complex vocabulary is used in music, drama, educational talks, and news programs than is used in serial drama, comedy shows, and commercials which are broadcast.

The research of Gragg (53) and of Bolton (11) showed the effect of the study of Latin, French, and Spanish and of social studies upon English vocabulary. A study by Kasser (80) indicated that slang words had only a slight chance of persistence even in the language of an isolated institution and that a majority of such words originated with students of high-school age.

Morgan and Bonham (112) found that nouns are learned more easily than other parts of speech. Adverbs were found the most difficult to learn. Shannon and Kittle (135) and Witty (168) reported other vocabulary building studies. Hearing and reading vocabularies were reported by Burton (15) to differ significantly. Park (122) revealed that vocabulary plays a significant part in the comprehension of ideas presented in sound motion pictures.

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Voice and Articulation

An elaborate study of some relationships between voice and personality was made by Duncan (29). The complex of vocal attributes was shown to have significant relationships to social adjustment as measured by standardized personality inventories. Voice quality appeared as the factor most closely related. The evidence clearly pointed to the value of a program for development of social adjustment in connection with voice training. Similar studies more limited in scope were conducted by Fay and Middleton (36) and McGehee (105). The study of Knower's (90) which continues his series on expression of the emotions shows definite relationship of the voice as an isolated factor to generalized skill in speech.

Black (8) demonstrated that speech training not only improves voice skill but also improves the ability to evaluate voice merit in speaking. Pronovost (127) reports useful technics for discovering one's best pitch level. The reports by Williamson (165, 166) indicated successful experience in improving nasality and hoarse voice. Wartime problems in the use of the voice and articulation were analyzed by Cooke (21) and Steer (140).

The study by Glasgow (51) led him to the conclusion that indistinct articulation caused a comprehension loss of 57 percent. Another way of stating this conclusion is that there was a 57 percent degree of indistinctness of articulation in this experiment. It is obvious that if the articulation had been completely indistinct, there would have been a hundred percent lack of comprehension. The study of phonetics was shown by Hester (69) to have value as a device in training readers. House (72, 73) concluded that the use of diacritical marks was an unsatisfactory manner of symbolizing speech sounds. Wilke and Snyder (164) made a nationwide survey of regional dialect preferences in the United States. They found a tendency to accept general American speech as the preferred dialect. Pleasant voice quality and distinctness of articulation were found to be important factors in any approved dialect pattern.

An outstanding publication of the period was Kenyon and Knott's (83) *Pronouncing Dictionary of American English.* Every student of articulation and phonetics should become familiar with it. Lynn (102) investigated the effect of bilingualism in articulatory skill and recommended a program for developing skill. Dow (28) surveyed usage in Massachusetts of variations of the short "O" sound. Three general studies of the bases of phonetic research which contribute to our understanding of the field were made by Funke (45), Pike (129), and Stetson (142).

Speech Correction

Johnson and Gardner (78) have critically reviewed the research on the handicapped in speech and hearing. Studies of the problems of children who do not talk were conducted by Rutherford (133). Cleft-palate cases

were studied by Wells (161). Hearing and speech were studied by Fowler (42). Johnson (77) and Nelson (121) analyzed the status of programs and analysis of cases of speech defects in military service. Speech correction programs have been outlined for public schools by Simon (136).

Reasoning—Semantics

Language skills are commonly recognized as important factors in thinking; and conversely effective speaking, writing, and listening are dependent in part on thinking skill. The ability to do skilful thinking must also be related to the ability to collect facts. Wiles (163) found that two-thirds of his college students had difficulty in locating needed information. Morgan (113, 114) conducted a series of experiments designed to clarify our understanding of the way thinking processes operate. Higgins (70) and Grener and Raths (54) were concerned with some general classroom methods of teaching thinking.

Howell (74) studied the effect of debate training on critical thinking. He found that high-school debaters outgained non-debaters on tests of critical thinking. Anderson, Marcham, and Dunn's (3) study showed that the greatest gains in their project in teaching critical thinking were in the processes of drawing inferences and conclusions. Johnson (76) and Hall (58) were particularly concerned about the use of discussion methods in teaching reflective thinking. Johnson developed a test which was found useful in measuring achievement in such skills and as a teaching device. The problems involved in the discussion technic for thinking together are analyzed by Salt (134). A study by Knower (91) developed and analyzed a test of skill in organizing ideas. Bumstead (14) experimented with the effectiveness of various methods of memorizing.

Semantic variations in certain high frequency words were analyzed by Foster (41). Hayakawa (64) reported an analysis of the field of general semantics as an educational philosophy and method.

Personal Development and Adjustment

Gilkinson (50) and Murray (117) have analyzed an extensive body of literature bearing on the relationship of personality to achievement in speaking. Gilkinson (47) developed a social fears scale and used it to analyze some of the significant features of stage fright. In a later study (48) he found scores on the scale correlated significantly with characteristics of the speaking voice. The highest correlation was with the use of vocal force. He concluded that a generalized sense of inferiority operates as a primary cause of stage fright. Henrikson (66) reported that students are not skilful in analyzing their own cases of stage fright. Courses in speech materially reduce the tensions of most students in speaking situations. Thorn and Bryngelson (149) studied the use of nonstructural case history technic in analyzing the speech personality and concluded that it is not superior to the structured type of autobiography.

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Poley (126) analyzed the problems involved in the teaching of English with the aim of developing maturity of personality. The report by Buckingham (13) was concerned with the autobiographical technics in teaching writing.

Spelling

The investigation by Triggs (157) showed the importance of using diagnostic tests in analyzing the spelling needs of college students. Simpson (137) reported a new test for measuring spelling achievement. Clinical teaching procedures were reported by Guiler (57) who stated that all levels of mental ability were able to profit significantly from remedial work in spelling. In his review of the literature Horn (71) concluded that there is greater present need for studies in the application of known facts and principles than for further research for facts.

Linguistic Analysis

One of the principal studies of the characteristics of our language was in Mencken's (109) *The American Language: Supplement One.* The supplement is in effect a second volume equally as rich and stimulating as the original. Bloch and Trager (9) have contributed a systematic plan for linguistic analysis which should be studied by all who are interested in research in the field.

TYPES OF ACTIVITY

Radio

The impact of radio as an educational force is being widely subjected to study. Plans for the educational uses of radio are being developed in many places. A report which should be of help to the planner is presented by Summers (144) of the Federal Radio Education Committee. Levenson (99) has published an extensive analysis of the opportunities and methods of radio education. Another useful study of the problem has been published by Woelfel and Tyler (170). The research by Woelfel and Wiles (171) into the uses of the radio by teachers in four of our largest states has produced a list of 101 successful practices. Types of equipment needed for educational broadcasting were analyzed by Henrickson (68) and King (84).

Radio research reviews such as those reported by Lazarsfeld and Stanton (95) provide comprehensive pictures of the problems of educational radio. The studies by Whan (162) of radio programs in particular states have served as useful guides to broadcasters. Chappell and Hooper (19) have analyzed the technics of radio audience analysis. Peatman and Hallonquist (124) investigated the patterning of listener's attitudes toward broadcasts. A detailed analysis of the nature and possible effects of the crime dramas was made by Rowland (132). Lazarsfeld's (196) study of the comparative effect of radio and the press led him to the conclusion

that under certain conditions radio proved more effective than the news-papers.

Public Speaking and Discussion

The two-volume set of studies edited by Brigance (12) is one of the most comprehensive and scholarly series of researches ever reported in the field. The early chapters on the history of the study of speaking are particularly useful in placing this educational activity in its historical perspective. Bender (7) has reported on the habits of speakers which are common annoyances. Henrikson (67) analyzed the characteristics of speakers reported as "good" and "poor." Moore's (111) study suggested that speech skill depends more upon general educational achievement and intelligence than upon personality traits. The devices by which the public speaker achieves successful emphasis were studied by Ehrensberger (32). The most effective simple device was found to be the use of the statement, "Now get this," before the statement to be emphasized. Studies in the teaching of discussion were carried out by Ewing (34), Hall (58), Howell (74), Johnson (76), and Salt (134).

Composition

A survey of the problems of beginning English classes is presented by Crawford (22). Wykoff (172) showed that a knowledge of the usable principles of grammar and punctuation is related to success in composition. Dow and Papp (27) reported no significant relationship between reading ability, language ability, and speaking ability. Low correlations were reported by Lemon and Buswell (97) between errors in oral and written expression in Grade IX.

Eaton's (31) study suggests that achievement in composition courses is not related to either the length of teacher experience or number of course hours devoted to composition study. Diagramming of sentences was revealed by Stewart (143) to provide no better mastery over sentence structure than directed practice of compositional activities. Roehm (130) provided suggestions for audio-visual methods of teaching language. Flynn and Corey (38) found the use of sound films a successful method of motivating the study of composition. Karp (79) recommended an individualized method for teaching superior students and a group method for the less capable. Witty (169) held that writing about vital personal experiences was helpful in helping the child overcome feelings of insecurity and tension over his writing.

Dramatics—Oral Reading

Gates and Carson (46) did research on the evaluation of phrasal ability in oral reading and found that the observation of experts provided a better test than complicated mechanical testing devices. Cunningham's (24) research revealed that rich rhythm patterns in oral reading are traceable

to linguistic elements and individual reader habits. The verse-speaking choir was shown by Harvey (62) to be a useful device for teaching voice and articulation. Timmons (151, 152, 153) reported a series of studies on dramatics. He found that participation in a play had measurable effects on the player's personality, and seeing a play resulted in significant changes in the attitudes of the listeners. Dietrich (26) found that the participation in school plays did not adversely affect the general academic scholarship of students.

Journalism

English (33) reported that readability was influenced by headline type. Casey (18) analyzed the needs of journalism students and outlined a curriculum. The graduate theses index by Swindler (145) will be very useful to anyone wanting to pursue the study of particular subjects or to trace the history of research in this field.

Informal Activities

Conversation has been subjected to analysis by McDonald (106) who reported factors related to conversational skill. Kramer (92) surveyed the activities which function in everyday living and recommended training in informal speech activities. The study by Fossum (39) related the speech needs of men in a variety of occupations. Fitzgerald and Knaphle (37) found that most of the difficulties in letter writing could be overcome by correcting a few simple mistakes.

Listener—Audience Analysis

There appears to be a new interest in this field, altho but few studies have been reported which bear directly on this skill. The analysis of problems by Sterner, Saunders, and Kaplan (141) is suggestive of the need for further study in this area. Ewing (35) devised and analyzed a listener index. Knower, Phillips and Koeppel (89) found listener skill was influenced by the effectiveness of speaking or reading. Lambert (94) and Lentz (98) published studies on the effectiveness of means of informing the public during wartime. Lentz (98) concluded that most opinion change is orderly and gradual. A project in the use of phonograph records as an aid to learning was published by Bathurst (6). The work of Long (100) indicated superior results were obtained from instruction in the Army where audio-visual aids were used. On the other hand Jayne (75) recommends a variety of types of presentation. He found that visual presentation alone does not produce superior retention of ideas. Knapp (85) systematized the research which has been done in the field of rumor.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

Teacher Education

A Harvard committee under the chairmanship of Morrison (116) engaged in an extensive analysis of the problems of secondary-school teacher

education in English. Recommendations were made for a better definition of the functions of English education, and for a five-year college program in teacher training.

Surveys by Chenoweth and Mabie (20) and McKelvey (107) collected evidence on teacher training and work in speech. Both studies revealed a need for a broad teacher-training program in speech rather than a highly specialized program in one of the divisions of the field. Morris and Huckleberry (115) described the type of educational program desired for the teacher of speech.

McCoard (104) furnished evidence on the relationship of speech skill to teaching efficiency. Significant differences were found between the speech of good and poor teachers. Moreover, good speech was found to be related to the process of getting a teaching position. A study by Henrikson (65) also attacked the question of the relationship of voice skills to teaching. His findings likewise confirm the need for vocal skill to achieve effective teaching.

Tests—Evaluation

The report of Knower (88) analyzed the complex process of securing useful diagnostic and evaluative indexes of speech achievement. Carp (17) carried on an investigation to determine the reliability and validity of teacher-placement examination in speech. In this carefully controlled study he demonstrated the need for expert judges and well-planned methods in any testing situation demanding exacting evaluations. The research of Thompson (147, 148) presented detailed data on the use of various measuring technics. Reasons for faulty ratings and methods of improving ratings were obtained. He reported the paired-comparisons method of rating as better than the rank order method and recommended simple rating devices as better than complex ones.

Specific measuring devices were developed and analyzed in a number of studies. Laase (93) indicated the quality rating system in debate proved a more reliable index of achievement than a win and loss system. Gilkinson (49) found the Seashore Test of Musical Talent of little value in measuring speech achievement. Knower (90, 91) developed specific tests of skill in the use of behavioral and tonal symbolism, and of the ability to organize material. Tenney (146) described a technic for measurement of speech on recorded film.

Traxler (155) carried on research to determine the value of scoring an English test for parts of the complex process of writing as well as for the test as a whole. He concluded that part scores would be useful. Evidence was presented by Averill (4) to show that the greatest value of English tests lies in the field of individual diagnosis. Hartog (60) showed that compositions should be judged for purpose and adaptation to reader. A study by Weber (160) dealt with the value of examination scores in Latin, French, and science compared with English in predicting college

grades in the freshmen and subsequent academic years, and found English scores to have the least predictive value.

Communications and Other Wartime Programs

There has been a renewed interest in the integrated teaching of the various types of communicative activity. Instructional programs which attempt to integrate the teaching of listening, speaking, and writing are becoming known as communication courses. The bulletin on *The Communication Arts* (158) in the High School Victory Corps was one of the first reports to outline such a program. Other analyses of this type of program appeared in the works of Grey (55, 56) and in *A Design for General Education* (2) prepared for members of the Armed Forces. Bagwell (5) indicated the plan and success of a civilian program of this type. A significant series of reports on the success of military speech and English courses were prepared by Tresidder (156), Bohman (10), Crocker (23), Paul (123), and Wise (167).

Hatfield and DeBoer (63) and Knower (86) gathered data on general English and speech training during wartime. A more specific study of the technics of teaching spoken language was carried on by Friedl (43). Witty (168) appraised the program in vocabulary building to increase literacy in the Army. The report of Cooke (2) described the use of battle announcing systems on shipboard.

Johnson (77) carried out an investigation of the speech correction in the early years of the war. Voelker (159) presented specific evidence which showed little relationship of generalized speech and English grades. The same lack of relationship held in his study for general speech ratings and officer ratings and ratings of the ability to give military commands. On the other hand, Nelson and colleagues (121) not only found that 43 percent of a group of R.O.T.C. cadets had one or more types of difficulty with speech but also that 38 percent improved their speech significantly under training.

Bibliographies

Smith (139) has published annual bibliographies of selected references on elementary-school instruction in English, and (138) she has reviewed the evaluative literature in composition. She recommended an emphasis on programs of personality development in English teaching. Dawson (25) reviewed the research studies in elementary-school English, and Trabue (154) outlined needed research in this area. Mackintosh (103) presented a bibliography of language arts courses of study. The annual reports on graduate work in the field of speech have been continued by Knower (87). The twelfth report in his series contains a combined index of the preceding reports. Over 2500 theses from forty-four graduate schools are indexed.

Programs

The reports of programs recommended by various groups within the profession are included here not only because of the research on which they are based, but also because of the implications of their educational philosophy. The Harvard Committee report (61) on *General Education in a Free Society* advocates a thoro training in the communication arts without providing much in the way of a plan for implementing this training. They frequently approve objectives which are commonly held by speech teachers but give no place to speech training in their program for general education. Fries (44) has dealt with the problems of teaching English as a foreign language. The forty-third yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education edited by Trabue (154) contains a detailed study of evolving problems in elementary-school language programs. The outline by Rasmussen (128) and the more extensive report of the Elementary-School Committee of The National Association of Teachers of Speech (119) provide complementary programs for speech education in the elementary school.

The Modern Language Association (110) has also presented a comprehensive statement of the English program. Adams and Murphy (1) worked out a statement of a speech and listening program for the National Council of Teachers of English. The most comprehensive statement of the speech program in the modern secondary school has been published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (118). This report was prepared by a committee of the National Association of Teachers of Speech and allied organizations. A total of thirty-two articles on almost every phase of speech education from the speech correction to the extracurriculum speech program was presented.

CONCLUSION

What conclusions can be drawn from these data? Perhaps the best method of concluding this review is to detail some areas in which further research is needed. This reviewer suggests that our greatest need lies in research which will provide data to enable us to give better answers to these questions:

1. What is the place of communication skills in general education programs? Can education in this area make as much contribution to general educational development as education in other areas?

2. What are the best methods of diagnosing and evaluating student needs, achievement, and abilities in communication skills?

3. What are the relationships of personality traits to achievement in writing and other types of communication skills?

4. What are the principal objectives and methods of instruction in teaching listening?

5. Are there general methods of instruction in the area which will produce better results and get them economically?

6. What is the comparative value of instructional emphasis on the narrow mechanical skills of communication and the broader general educational objectives of this area?

7. What is the evidence on the comparative value of integrated instruction and specialized instruction in the types of communication in the area?

8. What is the best grade placement for various types of objectives in teaching communication skills?

9. How can instruction in communication best be adapted to individual differences among students?

10. What steps should be taken to prepare teachers better for their instructional responsibilities in teaching communication?

The studies reported in this review have contributed to our understanding of these problems. But in no case is the evidence satisfactory or complete. It is hoped that the next review of research in this area three years hence will reveal substantial progress toward practicable answers to these questions.

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CHAPTER III

Teaching Technics in English

PAUL A. JONES

THE PAST two years have been fruitful ones from the standpoint of articles and books published on the subject of teaching English. Literally hundreds of them have appeared in published form; however, the number is comparatively small that deal with technics of teaching this subject. It is to some of this smaller group of publications that this summary will be confined, supplemented by the personal knowledge of the writer of the Navy's educational program.

The General Field

The Bonds (2) have presented a summation of the many researches that were conducted up to 1943 on the problems and technics of teaching reading. This study, designed to call the attention of teachers to the findings of many researchers, succeeded in its dual aim of not only calling attention but also suggesting a device for selecting from this vast field a program which could be easily executed.

Using the Bonds' book as an excellent starting point, the teacher of literature for younger students will find that Jones (7) has made a contribution to expository writing when he lists approximately eight hundred topics upon which students may write. Jones (7) uses several devices to aid the teacher in presenting the material; some of the topics consist of a title only, others consist of paragraphs containing helpful suggestions, and each group of topics is accompanied by an introduction which may be used for purposes of motivation.

The Secondary Field

Pooley (12) has written an article which advocates articulation between high-school curriculums and citizenship. He maintains that high-school curriculums should not be dominated by college entrance requirements and suggests that continuity between high-school and college English courses will make for better articulation and satisfaction. As a means of bringing about this articulation he recommends: (a) a committee to study standards and the means necessary to accomplish them; (b) a group of colleges to prepare a statement of what they want from their entering students; (c) college instructors to visit periodically the high schools in the vicinity; (d) colleges to form a theme-evaluation team to be of service to the high schools; (e) a method to be devised to measure the outcome of sound English instruction; and (f) include annually in a college staff at least one experienced and qualified high-school teacher of English.

Sandin (16), in a plea for better understanding between high schools and colleges, states that the reason why a number of high-school graduates enter colleges without comprehension of the written or spoken language

beyond the sixth grade level is due to the overloading of English teachers in preparatory schools. He says that as long as "penny pinching school boards . . . demand that a teacher of English . . . carry a load running from 120 to 200 pupils, we may expect high-school students to be virtually illiterate."

The College and University Field

A plea for freshman scholarship is made by Wynn (25) as he calls for actions and thoughts to be related, for one's own thoughts to be used to weigh and compare the thoughts of others, and for reasoning to be the one basis for forming, holding, or changing opinions. Arms (1) comes to the defense of the research paper when he states that it is a real center of freshman English in that it gives an opportunity to set up a problem and find a solution.

Stewart (19) describes a course now offered to freshmen who score below the thirtieth percentile on the Nelson-Denny Reading Test and advocates that: (a) transfer be made from the formalized presentation of a skill to the students' regular work; (b) practice be given in the basic courses; (c) instructors be permitted to go beyond the skills presented in workbooks and the students be taught to use the whole book; and (d) class morale be raised by having the major portion of the work in the class devoted to the students for their regular assignments. For better composition work Thurston (20) writes of a special English class for upperclassmen which is required prior to graduation. Thurston expresses appreciation of the fact that such a course may be impractical, and suggests that an alternate may be had by deferring one semester of freshman composition until the senior year.

An optimistic note for English in general and literature in particular is sounded by Wardle (21) when he states that engineers themselves have begun to realize that they will be better engineers if they are better-read men. Harbarger, et al (5), goes further than Wardle and recommends a course of study in English for engineers which would be divided into two parts. Part I reviews the basic skills for effective writing, and Part II directs practice in the appropriate special forms.

On a lower note Hulton (6) points out the numbers of adult Americans who are dissatisfied readers. She states that the dissatisfaction may be due to one or both of two types of complaints: (a) Their eyes may bother them when they read, or (b) their reading speed and comprehension is inadequate for their needs. Fortunately both of these complaints may be corrected thru proper treatment and training.

Marshall (8) discusses the possibility of predicting success in freshman English thru the use of three tests, and comes to the conclusion that no accurate prediction is possible. He points out, however, that none of the scores is low and all three are so nearly alike that they are important. The tests used are: Psychological Examination, Language Aptitude, and

Shepard English Tests with correlation scores ranging from .384 to .438.

"Illustrious as one author may be, there are others worthy of attention," says McCloskey (10) as he deplores the word-by-word examination of various pieces. Calling for its elimination he cites examples of the stultifying effect as the outcome of this type of teaching.

The Armed Forces Field

Rodman (14) calls the period between the wars one that is singularly rich. Perhaps one should go further and include the war years in this "singularly rich" period. Because, despite the interruption of educational plans of hundreds of thousands of young men and women, the war years have left their imprint upon all educational institutions in this country— an imprint which will be felt for a number of years to come. Rowe (15) states that the response of the students themselves, due to their background of intensified experiences, has contributed materially to the study of Shakespeare.

Authorities in the Army training program at the University of Minnesota, according to Smith (18), asked that straightforward, thoughtful, presentation of ideas be given first place in composition and that clarity in the progress and organization of ideas be insisted upon. Boys (3) describes a pre-induction course designed for sixteen- and seventeen-year-old boys who had completed at least three and a half years of high-school work with a better-than-average record. The curriculum was made up of mathematics, physics, American institutions and history, and English. The entire curriculum was coordinated and all mathematics, laboratory, and history papers were looked over by the English instructors. In another article, this by Hatfield (4), is described how accuracy of expression or clearness should be stressed and conventions of language should be de-emphasized. Pointing out the desirability of coordination between departments he tells of the enthusiastic response received at the University of Chicago upon the fusion of English and history courses.

"Communication consists of writing, speaking, and reading, the three skills functioning together," Redford (13). It is pointed out that students, even when they have received training in notable colleges and universities, were weak in the fundamental skills of communication and in the coordination of these skills. Little or no training in vocabulary-building and reading comprehension was evidenced in innumerable cases studied in an army training program.

Due to the fact that the War and Navy Departments had emphasized the need for "clear and accurate expression," Aubrey Douglass appointed a committee to study curriculums in the California Educational System, according to Sensabaugh (17). This committee, composed of English teachers from primary grades thru university, was divided into subcommittees on speech, composition, and literature. The aims formulated by the committee were: Composition and speech should develop clarity of

thought, and literature should keep alive the memory of those ideals and values which have animated the best minds of the present and past.

Weigle (22) tells of teaching English in an Army Air Force College Training Program, and lists the objectives of the course as: (a) development of the ability to write military reports, instructions, directions, and surveys; (b) development of speech technics used in military situations; (c) development of correct grammatical usage in writing and speaking; (d) development of reading skill and comprehension; (e) development of vocabularies in all phases of preflight training; and (f) development of note-taking technics. The course was divided into three units: speech, composition, and grammar.

An analysis of experiences gained from an army English class by Wykoff (24) shows the following results: (a) Sectioning system used by the Army was not effective because too low a cutting score was used. (b) Time element allocated by the Army did not allow sufficient time to cover the subject. (c) Place of grammar in course was not good as all students, regardless of proficiency, were required to take the subject. (d) Reading program of the Army was superior because of thoroness. (e) Comprehensive examination system used by the Army is worthy of consideration by civilian educators.

It would be unfair to pass on to another phase of this summary without making reference to Wiles, et al (23) and Peace and Wiley (11). The first named, a group of army officers, authored *English for the Armed Forces;* the latter, two naval officers, wrote *Navy Correspondence and Report Forms.* Both books are standard texts for their respective branches of the armed forces and will, undoubtedly, remain on the "required list" for some time to come. Both stress clarity and, altho somewhat esoteric, carry examples of accuracy and straight-forward presentation.

The Literacy Field

The Army's "Private Pete" has become a well-known figure in all army camps where training of nonreaders has taken place. It is to be regretted that this material is marked "restricted" by the War Department as a number of civilian educators are extremely interested in the methods used by the Army to teach large numbers of nonreaders to read, write, and solve arithmetic problems.

The Navy's program is also "restricted"; however, enough has appeared of unrestricted nature to warrant some discussion. During the last two years of the war the Navy carried on a special project in the field of literacy training. Prior to World War II the Navy had never been confronted with the problem of teaching its personnel the fundamentals of reading, writing, and arithmetic. With Selective Service, however, and the induction of men with little or no schooling, it became necessary to set up a program designed to instruct recruits in these subjects with the object of bringing them up to the fourth grade level. The broad purpose was to fit each man

to perform his duties in the Navy more effectively. To this end the following materials were published: *Navy Arithmetic, Navy Life,* Books I and II, *Navy Life Reader,* Books I and II, a teacher's manual and comic books.

Because the student personnel in the program was made up of adults, the Navy's procedure in teaching them differed somewhat from the conventional methods used in primary schools for teaching children to read and write. In the text-workbook, *Navy Life, Book I,* for example, emphasis was placed on phonic spelling and word meaning. Amply illustrated, its subjectmatter facilitated recognition of words which were already a part of the student's oral vocabulary. In *Navy Life, Book II,* the emphasis was gradually shifted from phonic elements to syllables, and from pictures to context for clues to word meanings. *Navy Life Reader,* Books I and II, which closely paralleled the vocabulary development in the workbooks, provided basic reading with frequent word repetition. This word repetition built up the student's vocabulary by what might be called a process of gradual accretion. Finally, the supplementary reading material capitalized on the powerful appeal of comic books, McCarthy and Smith (10), by presenting certain well-known comic strips with the vocabulary adjusted to the difficulty level of *Navy Life, Book I.*

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CHAPTER IV

Teaching Foreign Languages

WINTHROP H. RICE, with the assistance of HELEN BOGDON

THE SELECTION of items to be included in this report has been very diffi-
cult. Reduced space and great activity have made the omission of many
truly significant titles a necessity. One topic in particular has come to the
fore during the period covered, and a complete listing of all titles pertain-
ing to it would run well over one hundred and fifty. This is, of course,
the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) language (and area)
program and the offshoots from it, the "intensive" type course, the "Army
Method," and the like:

Bibliographies

In the April 1943 issue of this REVIEW, Tharp (233), Gamer (82), and
Bond (18) reported the activities in the field of foreign languages for the
three years preceding the period covered here. Machan (148) and Rice
(200) prepared annotated bibliographies of modern language methodology
in rather complete fashion, while Powers (194) gave a selected series of
references. Among the more serviceable special bibliographies devoted to
special topics three are particularly helpful: Grace and Harry Kurz (133)
analyzed French textbooks over a five-year period; Pane (173) listed
translations of Latin American books; Stanley and Neill (226) listed
articles on Latin America.

Reports

Most of the items which might be included as reports dealt with matters
of theory and practice as well and are listed under other topics. The results
of meetings in California, Ohio, and New York were reported by Reinsch
(199), Tharp (234), and Kurz (135, 136). Gossman (92) gave informa-
tion on foreign language requirements for college entrance, Cheydleur
(32) reported on the use of placement tests, and Fischer (71) gave data
on language election in relation to general intelligence. There were also
reports dealing with specific languages. For German, Stroebe (230) re-
ported on the teaching of that language at Vassar College since 1905, and
Wooley (253) analyzed the ups and downs of German teaching over a
fifty-year period. Pitcher (192) and Doyle (62) reported on the teaching
of Spanish and Portuguese, while David and Doyle (46) and d'Eça and
Doyle (49) reported on the treatment of Latin America in language text-
books for Spanish and Portuguese classes. Doyle (60) also listed a com-
plete calendar of inter-American events, holidays, and the like. The teach-
ing of English as a second language was reported on by Reindorp (198)
and Silva (220). The work of the Foreign Language Week in the Wash-
ington, D. C. public schools was described by White (246) and that
of the first Spanish Language Institute in Mexico City by Smith (222).

Girard (88) analyzed the work of the first three years of the National Information Bureau of the American Association of Teachers of French.

Values, Aims and Objectives

While, of course, a great many of the articles dealing with the ASTP discussed objectives along with other matters, some writers treated the question independently. Berrien (8), starting from recent criticisms of language-teaching, argued for revised objectives in a changed world. Johnston (113) used a specific institution to show how new objectives can be attained by revised methods. Engel (70), Jones (116), and Justman (121) found the study of foreign languages of great importance from the social standpoint. Diez (58), after cautioning against trying to do too many things at once, outlined a plan for the achievement of the various objectives one after another. Believing that the two-year course must have limited objectives, Blake (13) discussed what they should be in the light of possible attainment.

The function of foreign language study in wartime and in peacetime after the war came in for a good deal of discussion. Among the best exposés of the importance of foreign languages during the war were the treatments by E. Cross (41), Danton (44), Duggan (63), Elliot (69), Mapes (149), and Rivers (206). Pei (186, 187, 191) brought the discussion to bear on specific languages and showed the importance or position of them in relation to the total picture. Others, discussing the relationship of languages to postwar needs, stressed various points. De Gaetano (50) considered languages as a means toward democracy; Freeman (76, 77), Girard (87, 89), Pei (188, 190), Skinner (221), and Tharp (235) were in agreement that foreign languages are an important means of fostering international amity, a point directed specifically to Latin American relations by Downs (59) among many others. In most of these discussions, means of attaining the desired objectives were mentioned, with most of the stress on languages for use. Darbelnet (45), assuming postwar importance, stressed the need for a psychological readjustment in language-teaching aimed at the expression of feelings as well as of ideas. Actual vocational or professional uses of foreign languages were described and listed by Bishop (11) and Ring (205).

The question of whether French or Spanish should be the most studied language was raised by Foley (73, 74), who regretted the trend away from French. Autret (5, 6) and Withers (251) expressed what is probably a majority opinion in defending the necessity of both languages and even stressing the fact that they are of mutual assistance.

Teacher Training

Few items appeared during the period here covered devoted primarily to teacher training. A large number, however, stressed in passing the need for better and different types of training to meet the new situation. Potthoff

(193), in a bulletin dealing with teaching combinations, aroused objections from Pargment (174). This discussion was not brought to an end by Pargment's answer so that the conclusion was not definitive. Owens (170) listed certification requirements in seventeen states and offered some suggestions for improvement. The preparation of college teachers, a greatly neglected topic, was discussed by Pargment (177) who felt that the college teacher should be as carefully trained professionally as the secondary-school teacher. Kurz (134) felt that teachers in service could improve their training by greater attention to professional literature. A suggested means of evaluating the efficiency of teachers was described by Cheydleur (31) as the result of a long-time study and analysis of statistical data.*

Culture and Correlation

The matter of cultural content in language courses has long been an important one. This was viewed from many angles. The study of literature as a practical matter was stressed in a special report of the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association (155). Whereas the previous item dealt with both high-school and college work, Friederich (80) examined the question of comparative literature in colleges and found it wanting. He pointed out the benefits of such studies and offered suggestions for improving the situation. Jordan (119, 120) discussed the possible application of "area" work to regular college courses in Brazilian Portuguese and German, and Johnson (111) gave two sample units on French culture to show what can be done in the high school. Also dealing with cultural relationships in the study of French were articles by Freyss (79) and Leland (140). The importance of inter-American cultural relations was brought out by Berrien (9) while Padín (171) gave a picture of the position of Latin American literature in our schools. And, finally, the American Council on Education gave out the report of a special committee on Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects (2). This extensive report analyzes the way in which Latin America is depicted in teaching materials in all subjects and on all levels of instruction. (For the treatment in Spanish and Portuguese textbooks, cf. 46 and 49.)

The Use of Radio in Teaching

The use of radio programs as a means of practicing audio comprehension was discussed as part of many articles analyzed in other sections. This pertained particularly to broadcasts emanating from Canada, Latin America, and Europe. Atkinson (3, 4), however, described efforts to give foreign language lessons over the air by a few American public school systems and several colleges and universities. Institutions with radio facilities could

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* One work, omitted from the original manuscript, should have been included in this section. It is: Doyle, Henry Grattan and others. *A Handbook on the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese*, prepared under the auspices of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese and the Office of Inter-American Affairs. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1945. 395 p. This book offered teachers of these languages a mine of information on all matters dealing with instruction in them. The final chapter listed sources from which teaching materials of all kinds can be secured.

well attempt more along these lines. Reindorp (198) showed how success-fully a radio course in English was conducted in Costa Rica and offered sug-gestions which might be applied in the United States. Clements (34), in describing the activities of "Radio Boston," illustrated possible educational activities on an international scale. The field of the use of radio in language teaching is obviously still in its infancy.

Curriculum

There was some discussion of general curriculum questions. Spurr (225) and Liedke (144) reviewed the history of language teaching and advised caution in accepting blindly the new trends before they had been thoroly tried and tested. Eckelberry (67) studied the language situation in higher education and noted a sharp increase in courses stressing the practical as against the literary side of the work. Huebener (108) con-sidered the newer trends as applied to the secondary school; he found that the purely conversational aim of the ASTP was not valid for this level. He suggested increased time allotment for language study, some increase in conversation but without sacrifice of the cultural elements. Jackson (110) offered a revamped language program for New York City with a return to the four-fold aim, more time, smaller classes, and abolition of the Regents examinations as at present constituted. An example of a cor-related college language curriculum was given by Dean (48); in this curriculum, the work of various departments was coordinated. Lindquist (146) sought to establish the source of forces militating against effective language teaching. She showed that a good deal of the fault lies with ad-ministrators who refuse to allow the time and facilities for this effective work.

As an aid to teachers in organizing their work, the *Modern Language Journal* instituted a series of specimen lesson plans. In the introduction to this series, Rice (201) gave a general statement of unit lesson planning in modern language teaching.* As the first specimen, a unit in general language was offered by Lindquist (145). Maronpot (150) discussed the use of unit organization in providing for individual differences.

Increasing interest was shown in the teaching of languages in the ele-mentary school. One writer, Rindone (204), went so far as to label foreign language learning in childhood as a "must." The teaching of Spanish in the grades was enthusiastically described and discussed by Mays (151) and Earley (66). Rebolledo (196) mentioned certain problems involved in the elementary grades of the Southwest and suggested different instruc-tion for English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children. Kurtz (132) ad-vocated more reading in the language classes in the grades and offered suggestions as to how this could be done. Wilder and Phillips (248) de-

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* Most of the units appearing within the period here covered are mentioned under their specific headings. Units appearing after September 1945 include: Inductive Grammar, Remedial Grammar, Inter-American Education, Correlation of Italian Language with Cultural Content, and Use of Audio-Visual Aids.

scribed an experimental Spanish club of fifth-grade boys which produced good results. Ginsburg (86) outlined the new Spanish program for Los Angeles which operates on all levels from the kindergarten thru the junior college. Altho most of the activity in the grades seemed to involve Spanish, one French program for ten-year-olds' was described by Hibbard (102). The principles involved apply to any school group of the same age.

The twenty-fifth anniversary of the "Cleveland Plan," instituted by De Sauzé, was the occasion for several treatments of this plan. Among the best and most informative were articles by McClain (167, 168) and Pucciani (195). Flores (72) advanced suggestions for correlating Spanish and English to the mutual benefit of reading in both languages. Brozak (23) analyzed the status of Slavic studies in America, including language, literature, history, economics, and the like, in the study. The stress seemed to be on Russian, altho other Slavic languages are being taught.

It seems best to analyze writings on specific phases of language study before introducing the question of the ASTP, for much that has been said of the latter can best be grasped in the light of the discussion of the former topics.

Pronunciation and Conversation

The function of the conversational approach was, of course, one of the chief points in all the discussions of the ASTP, and the arguments for it properly belong to that section. However, the complete preëminence of this approach in the usual high-school class was questioned by Huebener (107) who felt that, altho important, conversation should not be allowed to supplant broader cultural and educational aims. On the more passive side of aural comprehension, Bodier (15) suggested a short-term course devoted solely to this aim. The instructor's activity was in the foreign language (except for explanation) while the students gave their answers in English in order to show comprehension. Pei (185) described an experiment in conversation with a group trained primarily for reading and found the results encouraging. Snow (223) suggested the use of a semi-direct method for teaching Spanish with the use of English to control comprehension. Courses in conversational German were described by Holzmann (105) and Jordan (121).

Much was done on the teaching of pronunciation, especially in French. Pei (189) offered suggestions for the teaching of sounds in many languages, basing his suggestions on imitation of native speakers. This would serve best for advanced linguistic students rather than for absolute beginners of high-school age. Funke (81), on the other hand, discussed the use of phonetics under similar circumstances where, he believed, a technical phonetic knowledge would serve as an aid to learning unfamiliar sound patterns. Condoyannis (36) and Wheatley (245), writing on German and French respectively, stressed the caution necessary in using English equivalents in discussing foreign sounds. They pointed out that local

and individual variations in English (American) pronunciation destroy the validity of many common comparisons.

On the technical side of French pronunciation, Myron (164) offered practical suggestions for avoiding an American accent in pronouncing French. Goddard, in a theoretical treatment (91) and in one of the specimen unit lesson plans (90), discussed and illustrated the teaching of French pronunciation to beginners. The suggestions offered were highly practical while using the phonetic alphabet as a basis of instruction. Delattre (51, 53) discussed the effect of the syllable on sound in French; he also (55) gave an extensive treatment of the difference between "graphic" and "phonetic" pronunciation for the benefit of students who, having begun on an oral basis, take up the question of spelling. The benefits need not be confined to that group. Denkinger (56) advocated a departure from the traditional arrangement of the vowel sounds in French teaching in favor of a system wherein the nasals become the basic element for grouping the sounds. As an example of the use of records in teaching pronunciation, Delattre (52) analyzed a recording of Maurice Chevalier and showed how it could be used to develop accurate aural analysis. Davis (47) discussed the question of the off-glide after final voiced consonants in French and suggested special symbols for their transcription. One author, Duncan (64), advocated the use of phonetics in the teaching of Spanish.

Vocabulary

Several studies of vocabulary, both general and specific, were made. Liebesny (143) suggested that vocabulary learning be made enjoyable by means of historical and semantic discussions. Jones (115) suggested that idioms not be set off as a separate category but be included in the course as vocabulary. Stevens (227) complained that textbook writers in Spanish often fail to warn students against false cognates—a thing equally true for other languages. Dealing only with the development of passive vocabulary in German, Wooley (254) presented a list of eighty word-families as a suggested means of expanding the student's ability to recognize meanings in reading. Seibert (219) described an experiment on the guessing of word meanings from context and also gave a sample lesson involving principles derived from the experiment.

The list of word counts available to students and teachers was increased to include Brazilian Portuguese. Following the system of most other such compilations by listing the words according to range and frequency, Brown, Carr, and Shane (21) produced a graded word book of Brazilian Portuguese containing over nine thousand entries.

The composition and use of dictionaries were treated by Kaldegg (123) and Henninger (100). The former discussed typical shortcomings of bilingual dictionaries; the latter advocated more training in the use of dictionaries and offered a series of "do's" and "don't's."

Several specialized vocabularies were treated. Peacock (183) pointed

out frequent foreign words in everyday reading material and suggested that they be collected by pupils and used as a basis for word study. Koenig (130) collected a large number of German words used in news reporting during the period 1930-1941, and Thompson (237) found that French was the chief source of military terms in English. These showed the continual interaction of languages upon one another. For those interested in aviation, Huebener (106) listed one hundred air terms in English, French, and German, while Rosaldo (210) compiled a similar list for Spanish and Portuguese. Rosaldo (211) also compiled a medical vocabulary in Spanish and Portuguese. Jones (114, 117) offered treatments of bridge-playing and sports which contained many essential vocabulary items. Walsh (243) discussed the use and effect of diminutives in Spanish, illustrating a point which is too frequently neglected by textbooks.

Grammar—General

The consideration of grammar from both general and specific standpoints was rather extensive. Many new approaches to the analysis and teaching of grammatical points were offered. General treatments are discussed here first, and treatments of specific points are then listed by languages. Much stress was placed on functional grammar as opposed to formal grammar. Pargment (175) stood for the functional approach, tending to reject formalized grammatical discussion and translation exercises. He showed how grammar can be made more profitable thru contextual exercises. Kaulfers (125) also stressed the element of availability for use in the treatment of grammar and illustrated this instrumental use for conversational purposes in a unit lesson plan (126). The psychological principles of learning as applied to grammar study were analyzed and illustrated by Ehrlich (68) who advocated departure from traditional types of examples and exercises. Coutant (39) went beyond the mere learning phases and discussed the development of reflective thinking thru the directed transfer of the analysis of relationships.

Of somewhat narrower, tho still general, implication, Bolinger (16) discussed some of the shortcomings brought about in Spanish grammars by the attempt to be brief in the presentation of grammatical elements. This, he said, often leads to either error or confusion. This criticism need not be confined to Spanish grammars. Rice (203) took occasion to disagree with the point of view that grammatical terms are difficult and undesirable. He recommended reasonable use of such terms based on meaningful definitions. Le Coq (139) regretted that more attention has not been given to the proper treatment of the passive voice, a construction with which American students often have a good deal of trouble.

Grammar—French

Various constructions in French grammar were analyzed. Palamountain (172) presented an illuminating discussion of interrogative usages based

on examples from a variety of sources. He came to conclusions which would amend previous ideas on the relative frequency of various alternative forms. Parker (179) considered the question of the quality of the "H" in Hitler and found wide variations; Liebesny (142) expanded the question to include all proper names and concluded that, in general, "H" in names of Latin or Greek origin tended to be mute, in names of Germanic or English origin it tended to be aspirate. Parker (180, 181) also discussed article (and prepositional) usage with modified feminine geographical names and article usage with the names of languages. Lancaster (137) added an amendment to the usual statements concerning the *"faire faire"* construction by showing that the pronoun of a reflexive infinitive is direct object under all conditions if it is direct object in the first place. The various constructions (infinitive, present participle, or clause) possible after verbs of perception were analyzed at great length by Hatcher (99), while Bissell (12) considered a combination of this and the *"faire faire"* construction, with most of the attention paid to the latter. The psychology of the subjunctive in both French and Spanish was treated by Rice (202) who would classify all uses under the heads of two implications: emotion and lack of certainty. The relative frequencies of all grammatical constructions were set up by Clark and Poston (33) in the *French Syntax List,* patterned after the similar list for Spanish published by the Study. Vittorini (239) examined the uses of prepositions before the infinitive in the romance languages and recommended that students strive to get the "feel" of these rather than to set up any mechanical rules.

Grammar—German

A call for the preparation of a descriptive grammar of living German was issued by Coenen (35) who suggested that this be done as a cooperative venture utilizing all means and agencies possible. The question of the subjunctive came in for some discussion: Willey (249) and Condoyannis (37) dealt with matters of nomenclature as a means of simplifying treatment of this topic; Schroeder and Loose (217), in addition to objecting to current terminology, advocated more reference to similarities in English in order to clarify the problem in German. Basilius (10) treated the topic of noun plurals, classifying them on the basis of their qualities as monosyllables or polysyllables.

Grammar—Italian

The only treatment of a construction specifically involving Italian was Luciani's (147) discussion of model auxiliaries. In this discussion, much attention was given to uses not ordinarily included in grammars, and many comparisons with English were made.

Grammar—Spanish

The chief topic of discussion in Spanish seemed to be *ser* and *estar.* Bolinger (17) commenting on previous treatments of the question, added

the idea of subjectivity as applied to the subject as well as to the attribute. Moellering (157) went further and suggested that the concept of "crystallization" be attached to *ser* and that of being "phaselike" to *estar*. Both of these, naturally, deal with the usage in connection with predicate adjectives. Bull (25) discussed another phase of the use of *estar*, this time in relation to *haber: estar* would be used for the location of a grammatically definite entity, *haber* for one grammatically indefinite. An outstanding contribution to the study and understanding of Latin American syntax was made by Kany (124). In this compilation, the author listed by countries variations in syntax from peninsular Spanish, and numerous examples reenforce discussion.

Reading

With the greatly increased interest in other phases of language study, particularly conversation as illustrated in the ASTP type of work, it was natural that the discussion of reading should have been somewhat less than in previous periods. There were, however, several excellent discussions of the topic outside the treatments of the ASTP. Pargment (178) discussed the nature of reading which should, he said, be "direct." He gave many detailed suggestions as to content and method and showed the contributions of grammar, vocabulary, and the like to reading. Koch (129) wrote along much the same lines with the added suggestion that teachers receive special training in reading work. Another writer on this topic was Jones (118), who combined the question of reading with that of speaking, basing his ideas on the statement that the former does not preclude the latter. This idea was the chief point of Hocking (103) who developed the thesis that without good pronunciation good silent reading is impossible. He looked upon reading as silent expression. Blayne (14), on the other hand, would separate the work in silent reading from oral reading, but still suggested oral work in the form of questions and discussions. Hammer (97) suggested similar activities as a means of enlivening work in scientific German; he advised the use of visual aids, recordings, comprehension exercises in English as well. An experiment on the effect of planned vocabulary study on rate and comprehension of reading was conducted by A. Z. Moore (159) who found that such planning was desirable and effective.

The question of extensive versus intensive reading was examined by A. Z. Moore (158); the results as tabulated seemed to favor intensive reading as giving better growth in vocabulary and reading technics. Unit lesson plans in the two types of reading were presented: intensive by De Sauzé (57) and extensive by Tharp (236). Coutant (40) discussed the position of free reading and felt that time should be allotted for it from assigned periods. He also suggested lists of such readings for French and German.

A single writer dealt with translation. Myron (166) disapproved of reading for content and stressed the necessity of careful translation from

French (or other languages) to English. This translation, however, must not be of the literal, word-matching, deciphering type. The final English result must be on a par with the quality of the original.

Koch (129) discussed the difficulties of teaching literature. He considered the problem of the choice of texts which should be selected for their intrinsic value rather than because they are favorable to certain points of view.

Audio-Visual Aids

Most of the discussion of this topic—again outside the realm of the ASTP—had to do with audio aids, mainly the use of the phonograph. Bottke (19), Carter (29), Delattre (54), and Whitehouse (247) described laboratories or workshops wherein the chief instrument of instruction or of exercise was the phonograph. The machine was used both for original instruction in pronunciation, vocabulary, and syntax and for drill and remedial work with the student actively participating in the procedure. Cahnman (26) described an experiment in which an audio-visual method was used in the teaching of several languages. Suggestions for wider application of this type of work were made.

Testing

Among the few items on testing, the most original was presented by Kaulfers (127) and by Sandri and Kaulfers (213). This test was designed to evaluate not only aural-comprehension but also oral fluency by measuring readiness to perform in lifelike situations. The only draw-back seems to be that only one individual can be tested at a time and hence a large group of examinees would require either a long time or a large corps of examiners. But this is an administrative matter and does not affect the value of the test *per se*. The use of standardized tests was described by Ghigo (83). Given in written form to groups of aural-oral trained students there was no apparent discrepancy in relative standings in the different types of work. Stroebe (239) suggested the preparation of standardized test recordings for aural comprehension. These would be available first as tests and later as practice exercises. The objective form of standardized tests should be adapted to individual tests and quizzes, according to Kurath (131). This form of test or quiz would save time for both teacher and student as well as provide objective bases of evaluation. Cheydleur (32) and Giduz (85) discussed the use of placement tests at their respective universities. The program described by the former was especially elaborate and offered some impressive findings on the questions of prognosis and placement. Milligan and Bottke (153) compiled errors in pronunciation in first- and second-year students on the basis of a special test. The results showed fewer errors among girls than among boys, and fewer in the "star" sections than in the lower sections.

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ASTP, "Intensive" Language, etc.

Most diffuse and varied were the treatments of the effect on language teaching of the work done in the areas and language courses of the ASTP. A complete listing of items can be found in the annual bibliographies of the *Modern Language Journal;* the first to contain them appeared in May 1945 (200) and subsequent ones will, of course, continue to list them. It would be impossible to list here all the descriptions of such courses and civilian equivalents as they are instituted in increasing numbers. This listing has tried to combine the discussions into as compact a form as possible and many excellent and interesting items have perforce been omitted. Essential articles embodying general agreement have been listed together without any attempt to refer the reader to the individual sources of individual ideas—this would have led to great confusion. Furthermore, specific references to special topics have been reduced to a minimum in order to keep this report within the bounds of the serviceable.

ASTP—General

The primary and most "official" source of information on the results of the ASTP work was embodied in the report of a special investigating committee (156). The second printing of this report included recommendations for the application to both high school and college of this type of language work. That this report was not the last word on the subject, as far as investigation is concerned, was shown by Dunkel's (65) outline of the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language. General treatments of the question as a whole were presented by a long list of writers from which the following were selected as giving the most complete and informative picture of the situation: Agard (1), Brann (20), Brown (22), Hohlfeld (104), Johnson (112), Langellier (138), Levy (141), Miller (152), Milligan (154), Munro (163), Pargment (176), F. M. Rogers (207, 208), P. P. Rogers (209), Scanio (214), Springer (224), Wahlgren (241), Waxman (244), and Wilmers (250). Points made by these writers more or less in common involved, first of all, stress on the spoken language for use in everyday life. Matters of pronunciation, vocabulary, functional grammar and so forth were treated in many of them as a matter of course. All recognized that increased time, selection of students, motivation, small classes, increased physical facilities were factors contributing to the success cf the program. Many pointed out that, while reading was not one of the specific objectives of the ASTP course, this ability was apparently well acquired especially with a minimum of extra effort. It may well be that this—when and if established by testing—will become one of the main ultimate contributions of the program to modern language teaching.

Opinion on the eventual outcomes was not unanimous, however. Herman (100), for example, felt that the report of the special committee was not

sufficiently based on solid criteria to warrant blind acceptance. Others, including some mentioned above, urged the greatest of caution in trying to adapt the intensive type of course to civilian work at any level, especially in the high school. While recognizing that the program did do some excellent work, several writers preferred to withhold judgment pending further data. These included E. Cross (42), S. H. Cross (43), Morgan (161, 162), Paulsen (182), and Stroebe (228).

Hyneman (109) described the evolution of the whole army language program from its inception thru the establishment of the ASTP program. He had been connected with the development from the start and portrayed the development as seen from the "inside." Friedl (78) gave an exhaustive description of the way in which a typical course was conducted and provided a wealth of sample units to illustrate procedures.

ASTP—"Linguistic Analysis"

An offshoot of the general problems raised by the ASTP was the question of method. As originally set up for the less common languages, the approach known as "linguistic analysis" was used. This was the method which first brought the linguist-informant team together. Upon the inception of the ASTP, the directives indicated application of this method to the more common languages, and discussion immediately arose as to its validity. In actual practice, the method underwent many variations which can be seen from the reports of individual programs. The discussion of the pros and cons of the application of this approach in its pure form had many implications, and certain elements, such as the use of the informant, were adapted to more traditional approaches.

A bare minimum of treatments on both sides has been selected for presentation here. Sturtevant (231) offered an answer to the question, "What is a linguist?" giving a specialized definition of the term in line with the conception of "linguistic analysis." Haas (93) presented a picture of the "linguist" as a teacher of languages, but in connection with less common ones. Nicholson (169) spoke from the learner's point of view in describing the working of the linguist-informant method in the study of Malay. The application of this method to the languages of Europe was defended by Hall (95) and attacked by Pei (184). (These are but the most extensive treatments of the question by these two writers. The full list can be found in the bibliographies already mentioned.) Carmody (27, 28) also objected vigorously to the use of the system in teaching French.

Two items in non-professional publications caused some flurry of discussion. A digest of an article by Walker (242) allowed the general public to draw inferences which brought violent objections from language teachers. Doyle (61) and Withers (252) pointed out that the time spent in learning languages should be judged by the clock rather than by the calendar, and that the seemingly short nine-month course was in reality equal to a six-year course on the basis of the usual manner of presentation. An

exposé of the linguist-informant method as applied to uncommon languages appeared in *Fortune* (75) and gave rise to similar misunderstandings. An answer was carried in the same publication several issues later (75).

Hall (96), basing his argument on the stress on speech rather than on writing, suggested reoriented and revised textbooks. He illustrated this point in connection with French grammar (94) in a way which seemed open to contrary argument.

ASTP—Others

The balance of the items of this section on the ASTP treats a variety of more or less special topics. The language program of the Navy was described at some length by Axelrod (7), while Vaeth (238) told of efforts at language teaching by the Navy in Latin America. Rowe (212) gave the student's point of view from his experience in one of the Spanish ASTP programs. The informant's point of view was expounded by Schmertzing (216), Sebeok (218), and Teller (232). "Intensive" language courses at Yale and Wisconsin were described by Buendia (24) and Harris (98). The function of "area" work in the total program was discussed and evaluated by Gibson (84) and Voegelin (240). Schaeffer (215) treated the surrender value of ASTP work for the trainee. He took the position that the work would afford the student an excellent background for future work.

Several descriptions of work in individual languages appeared. Corbato (38) treated the teaching of Chinese, Myron (165) of French, Zech (255) of German, Ceroni (30) of Italian. O. H. Moore (160) gave an interesting sidelight in the description of the psychological effect of the program on a group of Italo-American men studying Italian in the ASTP. The question of psychological adjustment among these men was nearly as important, apparently, as the linguistic phase.

Conclusion

All in all, the period covered here was one of great activity as well as one of transition. The tendency to change from a pure reading aim to a conversational aim was most marked, brought especially to the fore by the ASTP. What the final outcome will be, cannot, of course, be predicted with certainty, but if indicated trends continue, it is probable that the "four-fold" aim of hearing, speaking, reading, writing will regain the place it once occupied with great, but not exclusive, stress on the avail-ability of languages for use in practical situations.

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CHAPTER V

School Instruction in Art

THOMAS MUNRO with the assistance of RAY N. FAULKNER,
HELMUT HUNGERLAND, and J. B. SMITH

THE PERIOD covered by this report contains the last three years of World
War II. The last report in this REVIEW, dealing with the visual arts, was
that of Arisman (5) which covered the opening years of the war. The
last peacetime report and the last to deal with fairly normal conditions,
was that of Faulkner and Myers (43). The present report covers the period
in which teaching and research in the visual arts were most seriously re-
stricted by war conditions: (a) in the curtailment of personnel for research
and teaching, many of those formerly active being in armed service or
other war work; and (b) in the curtailment of funds, from foundation
and other sources, to support special inquiries and educational projects.
Those art teachers who remained at their posts were, in many cases, too
heavily overworked with added teaching and committee work to welcome
tasks which did not seem to bear directly on either regular or wartime
duties.

Art Instruction During the War Years

During the past three years, one finds no single book on art education
comparable in scope and collective enterprise with the 1941 yearbook of
the National Society for the Study of Education (118). One finds little
important experimental research in art education, except a few belated
reports on projects begun before the war. Many articles discussed art
education in a general, informal way. Some protested against the tendency
of wars and depressions to interfere with art education, reaffirmed the
cultural value of such study, and found a new need for it in times of
emotional stress, destruction, and tragedy. As usual, many short articles
by art teachers described particular projects carried on in schools, but
little novelty was claimed for most of them.

Three areas, within or closely connected with art education, showed
increasing activity under adverse conditions, with fresh approaches to
new and perennial problems. One was directly affected by the war: it con-
cerned the question, "What can the artist and art teacher do which will
have immediate, practical value in the war effort?" Another was stimulated
by the wartime interest in our Latin American and Asiatic alliances: it
had to do with the place of art in intercultural cooperation. A third seemed
to have no special connection with the war situation; it was the field of
aesthetics, including scientific as well as philosophical studies of the arts,
especially from a psychological point of view.

On the first of these subjects, art in wartime, art teachers showed their
eagerness to adapt their skills in ways which might be of military value,
and their ingenuity in thinking out ways of doing so. Camouflage, the

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first thought of many artists facing the problem, proved to be an outlet for fewer of them than had at first been expected; but many other ways opened. One of the first answers to the problem was that of Fox (50), who pointed out many different wartime needs for the artist, including industrial design and production illustration, exhibitions, posters, documentary sketches, maps, models, and cartoons. Several organized groups and committees dealt with the problem in detail, especially the Fine Arts Staff of Teachers College (46). In its booklet Fox (49) discussed a special phase, the function of art museums in the crisis. Bennett (16) and others in a committee of college art teachers reviewed the practical possibilities under several headings: military, civilian and industrial, cultural, historic and interpretive, creative painting and sculpture, architecture, drama, motion pictures, and museums. They asked that too much of immediate practical value should not be expected, and that the value of the arts in sustaining the human spirit in the presence of tragedy should not be forgotten. Macgowan (92), Miller (100), and others of the NEA Department of Art Education emphasized the problem of objectives for art education in wartime, and reached a similar conclusion, as did Winslow (169) and Bradley (19). Recognizing the need of transferring energy to practical uses, they asked that the machinery for peacetime art education be not allowed to break down entirely, and that the far-reaching value of art for social morale be fully utilized.

Research in Art Education

The literature reviewed below covers the major contributions to art teaching made thru research in art education, psychology, and aesthetics. Because an understanding of the fundamental characteristics of the processes of *creation* and *appreciation*—as related to the production and enjoyment of art as well as to personality development—is essential to the improvement of art instruction, special emphasis has been given the literature in these areas. The remainder of this chapter is organized under the following headings: The Scarcity of Exact Research and Controlled Experiment in Art Education; Psychological Studies of Children's Art and Behavior Toward Art; The Psychology of Visual Art; The Visual Arts in General Education at Various Levels; College Art Instruction; and The Growth of Aesthetics as a Descriptive Science.

The Scarcity of Exact Research and Controlled Experiment in Art Education

Research and experiment of strictly scientific standards have always been rare in American art education, and they declined to the vanishing point during the late war years. It is a primary task for scientific aesthetics and the psychology of art to work out appropriate methodology about which much can be learned from German and Austrian work between the two world wars. American art teachers are usually not adequately trained

to do exact research and school conditions often forbid expending the necessary time and energy. No publications during this period attack in a thoro, scientific way the central problem of the value of one basic method of art education compared with another.

Foundation work, however, is being done in applying the results of general psychology and psychoanalysis to illuminate the processes involved in art education. Read's study (139), the most substantial effort of this sort, analyzed many pictures by English children from various psychological points of view, especially that of Jung, and showed the psychological implications of a "natural" mode of art education. Meier's discussion of talent in children (96) summarized some of his earlier studies in this field. Lark-Horovitz (82) compared evaluative and other critical judgments of children's art by teachers and other experts, showing great variation among them in the understanding of terms as well as in the judgments expressed. She urged more objective methods of analysis.

The terms "research" and "experiment" are often used loosely by teachers in describing methods and projects which they undertake. Control, measurement, and other requisites are often totally lacking, but something is gained by a careful report of experience, even if informal and subjective. When performed by persons of scientific background, results are significant, as in the case study by Schaefer-Simmern and Sarason (144) of creative artistic therapy applied to a thirty-year-old feeble-minded woman. They concluded that intelligence tests did not adequately measure the creative aspect of intelligence and showed the improvement in general personality adjustment resulting from "procedures based on the individual's potentialities for organized development." The need for detailed experimental investigation was revealed in a suggestive study by Webb (166) of the effects of art in preventing delinquency. Harms (59) and Brick (20) concluded that children's art was a useful diagnostic and therapeutic aid in psychopathology.

Perry (129) reported an experiment with a diversified art program, giving specific details of materials and procedures and a general impression of beneficial results. Meier (95) advocated scientific rather than emotional means in teaching color and described one apparatus for presenting pairs of spectral colors in patches of variable size and another providing variable illumination of objects and settings. Jones (74) described another instrument for studying color, light, composition, and design, using colored lights instead of pigment. Barnes (9) described a method for testing understanding of the visual arts, as part of a course unit on painting, involving judging contrasts or similarities between lantern slides in terms of color, expression, composition, and function. Sherman (153) reported gains by an experimental group, much in excess of gains by a control group, in peripheral acuity, central stereo-acuity, and peripheral stereo-acuity resulting from an experimental project in elementary drawing and painting.

Morsh and Abbott (106) studied the after-image behavior of seven

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hundred children, and found no indication of a special eidetic ability, rather a graded continuum of sharpness and clarity of the visual after-image. There was a relation between ability to experience after-images and age as well as with art achievement; there was no particular sex difference and only slight positive relationship with intelligence.

Psychological Studies of Children's Art Products and Behavior toward Art

Tho usually throwing no direct light on the choice of educational methods, studies of children's art products and behavior in art situations contribute much indirectly. They show the teacher more clearly what factors he has to deal with in the student's personality and the significance of certain attitudes and types of product. Thus he can work out his own methods more intelligently. There is great practical need for methods of *evaluation*, both of aptitude and of achievement; also for *descriptive* studies of developmental stages, personality types, and other phenomena, as revealed in children's art.

Faulkner (44) surveyed and criticized previous discussions of evaluation in art, pointing out difficulties in many proposed tests and measures, and showing how some of them could be used in limited ways. Mellone (98) made a factorial study of picture tests for young children. Seashore's memoirs of his scientific work described the origin of the Iowa studies in psychology of art (152). Hunter (71) urged an attempt to appreciate and measure the inner accomplishments of students. Beckham (13) reported results of administering the Lewerenz tests in fundamental abilities in visual art to 100 intellectually superior Negro school children, 100 art pupils, and 100 randomly selected pupils. His results indicated that intelligence is an important factor in many of the art test items and that a few showed significant age differences.

Aimed at objective description of developmental stages rather than at evaluation, the Cleveland Museum of Art studies of children's art ability were reported by Munro, Lark-Horovitz, and Barnhart (109) and discussed by Arisman (5). They showed intermediate stages in the prevailing tendency toward realism of representation and proposed tentative age-level norms in this and other respects, which could be used in estimating the child's status as advanced, average, or retarded. Beach and Bressler (12) distinguished five developmental phases in the painting of children between ages two and seven. These are: relatively uncoordinated scrubbing; accidentally attained design; consciously sought design; representation without perspective; and finally full realization of representation and design. Teachers should understand the developmental pattern, encouraging the child to find satisfaction in each phase rather than try to rush him toward a later one. Barnhart (10) reported on the use of a device, the "recorder," for observing the stages by which a child constructs a pictorial composition, and showed how children differ in this regard. Cain (22)

described an objective measure of accuracy in drawings, as shown in ability to copy irregular hexagons from memory. Schmidl-Waehner (147) reported on the application of certain formal criteria for the analysis of children's drawings: size of picture, proportion and shape of paper chosen, distribution of form-elements in the picture, preference of expression thru line or spots, and motion-elements. She found that analysis based on such criteria affords insight into the dynamic processes of the child, supplementing Rorschach tests. Hurlock (72) described spontaneous drawings by adolescents on book covers, scraps of paper, and the like.

Triplett (162) analyzed the educational needs of contemporary artists, arguing that much activity carried on today under the name of art fails to satisfy such needs and blinds adolescent students to true values. Simpson (155) analyzed "creativeness" as applied to children's art, stating that it fell within the province of the psychology of learning. Three basic principles of learning were listed: readiness, in the form of motivation or purpose, implying an aim; activity of the learner; and evaluation of the approximation of reaching one's aim. Creative production was said to imply something that is purposive, knowledge previously gained and ability to concentrate sufficiently, and evaluation. Imitation is not rejected as a means of learning, because it saves energy by not repeating previously established knowledge; creativeness should not mean mere variation from a standard. The beginnings of drawing are simply trial and error, and are not creative in the sense that they are mysterious or unique. Evaluation should be in terms of the purpose aimed at, keeping in view the technical limitations of the child. The tendency of children to simplify difficult designs in reproducing them was described by Hildreth (62); the child reworks concepts to fit his experience and ability.

On the side of *appreciation or response* to art, Katz (76) proposed a test for estimating the nature of and changes in elementary-school children's preferences for traditional and modern paintings. Two years later he reported on an extensive factual study of children's preferences for traditional and modern paintings (77), finding that among schools the higher the socio-economic level, and among individuals the higher the IQ, the greater was the preference for traditional paintings. Preference for the traditional increased from Grades II-VI. Todd (161) also studied such preferences, finding that many children between ten and twelve years of age could distinguish correctly between older and modern paintings and, analyzing their judgments according to criteria used, subjectmatter, age, and sex differences, stated reasons for preference. Huang (68) compared kindergarten children's responsiveness to form and color. Luchins (90) showed how children's perception of complex drawings was influenced by remarks or previously shown sketches.

A little further from the central problems of art education are those studies dealing with children's art or behavior toward art, less for their aesthetic importance than as clues to personality traits or as data of general

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psychological significance. Such studies, however, may all contribute to
an understanding of the child's expressions and responses thru indicating
various causal factors other than specific art instruction or experience.
Naumburg contributed four studies of children's art expression (120, 121,
122 and 123). The first, dealing with effects of the war, concluded that
as boys gain confidence in themselves stereotyped drawing diminishes;
war is dealt with realistically, its conflicts being used to express hostility
and regression. The second studied the art expression of a behavior prob-
lem boy as an aid in diagnosis and therapy, stressing the importance of
the unconscious and the role of fantasy expression thru free art work.
The third argued that realistic and symbolic art forms help to release
tensions; free art expression is a means of therapy. The fourth showed
significant characteristics in the drawings of a hysterical adolescent girl.
War themes in children's drawings were studied by Hildreth (63) who
found a great increase in such themes in 1943 over 1942 and greater
tendency toward them among boys than among girls.

The value of art activities for revealing personality traits as well as for
guiding them was urged by Indrikson (73). In England's (40) study of
children's drawings, it appeared that problem children, children from
broken homes, and delinquents have greater productivity; i.e., express
themselves to a greater degree than the presumably normal public-school
child, the retarded and the feeble-minded child. There was no significant
difference between the groups in percents of unpleasant experiences repre-
sented. Alschuler and Hattwick (2) examined easel painting as an index
of personality in preschool children, to discover (a) if and how the free
activities of two-, three-, and four-year-old children with certain creative
media (easel paints, crayons, blocks, dramatic play) may be related to,
and give insight into, individual personalities; (b) what generalized ten-
dencies, if any, might be found expressed in these activities. They con-
cluded that during this self-expressive phase children behave as they feel;
however, there are many exceptions in which feelings not overtly expressed
are expressed in easel painting.

Animal drawings were found significant by Bender and Rapoport (14),
as facilitating displacement of repressed drives; nonaggressive-looking
animals being associated with mild behavior, and aggressive-looking
animals with psychoneurotic behavior. Bender and Wolfson (15) inter-
preted the nautical theme in the art and fantasy of children, while Wolff
(174) outlined projective methods for personality analysis of expressive
behavior in preschool children. Schilder and Levins (144) showed how
abstract art might express human problems. Symonds and Krugman (158)
discussed finger painting and drawing tests as means for studying person-
ality. Mc Intosh and Pickford (93) showed how the drawings of an eight-
year-old girl revealed her problems of hatred of a younger sister and
parents, and envy of an older brother. The drawings showed artistic merit
whenever there was either a strong conflict unconsciously expressed or

when conflicts were shown successfully resolved. When the pictures were ineffective fantasies or wish-fulfilments, they were relatively inartistic. This interpretation of artistic motivation was applied to the music of Tschaikovsky, Brahms, Bach, and Beethoven. Brick (20) reported on observations of children's changes of mood and attitude in relation to their paintings. Elkisch (39) analyzed the art products of eight children, selected on the basis of sociometric ratings. In some of the low-scoring children, maladjustment was shown in the drawings: rule (rigidity as well as inertness), simplexity, compression, disintegration, lack of realism, or prevalence of symbolism. In those of some whose sociometric scores were high, adjustive ability was shown in prevalence of rhythm over rule, complexity over simplexity, expansion over compression; integration dominated, and there was a healthy attitude toward realism.

Possible racial and cultural differences were explored by Taylor (159) and by Russel (142). The former, in experimenting with drawings by students in college in India, concluded that cultural influences affect drawings; there were differences not only between the American and the Indian student but between the various Indian cultural groups. The latter gave the Goodenough Draw-a-Man test to Zuni children, finding that in order to discover developmental trends in behavior, it is often necessary to remove cultural and experiential influences by some such procedure as in the instructed drawings. Dennis (37) gave the same test to Hopi children, finding an increase in sociodifferentiation with increasing age. Löwenfeld (88) showed how American Negroes (adults and children) take socially approved art as their model.

The Psychology of Visual Art

Numerous articles and a few books dealt with this important approach to art education without restriction to children, altho many of their findings applied to persons of all ages. An introductory textbook on the psychology of art by Meier (94) summarized many researches, including some of his own on creative production and talent in children; but it surveyed the wider subject of art in contemporary affairs and modern experimental art. Portnoy (134) covered a wide field of psychological material as found in works of art and in artists' lives and comments. The creative process, as revealed by statements of artists, was also emphasized by Rees (140), who analyzed it in terms of four Gestalt principles: integration; adjustment; purposive differentiation; and Prägnanz.

Briefer but far-reaching analyses of aesthetic experience, the psychology of the artist, and the psychology of drawing and painting were given by Schoen (150, 148), Bordin (18), and Cain (23). Löwenfeld (87) analyzed creative activity as a means of self-expression and self-adjustment. Self-expression is not merely the expression of thoughts and ideas in general terms of contents; it is the reflection of developmental stages within an individual, a dynamic manifestation of the mental and emotional state

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of the individual, and changes as the individual develops. If the individual has lost the path of self-expression, thinking in terms of others and expressing himself with strange means, he has blocked his road of development. Löwenfeld also (89) outlined a series of tests for visual and haptical attitudes. Whittaker, Hutchison, and Pickford (167) reported on a questionnaire given to painters and musicians. Inspiration presents itself to musicians in musical terms who are inspired by the feel of sounds of instruments or voices; painters are inspired in pictorial terms, by some object or by their medium. The artists are greatly influenced by their social environment, the traditional folk art, and the interests of their community.

Several studies dealt with more specific problems related to the psychology of visual art. Koehler and Wallach (80) observed figural after-effects, finding that objects in visual space are represented by corresponding figure processes in the visual cortex. Arnheim (6) discussed Gestalt and art, showing how the artist organizes sensory facts according to the laws of Prägnanz, unity, segregation, and balance. Eysenck (42) applied a Gestalt concept to the problem of aesthetic pleasure. Peters (130) studied preference judgments of pictures, finding that a shift in affective value following learning which involved positive and negative responses is correlated with a perceptual, not a conceptual, observing set.

A number of publications, mostly brief, dealt with phenomena of art and personality from a psychoanalytic or psychiatric point of view. Sachs (143) covered a variety of aesthetic topics in terms of the "creative unconscious." Kris (81) suggested that in creating art the artist's ego control is reduced, and that a temporary regression takes place which is used by the ego for its own purposes. Unconscious determination of creation in painting and sculpture is suggested and illustrated in the work of three artists. An experimental study of drawing behavior of adult psychotics was reported by Anastasi and Foley (4), who found little difference between psychotic and normal in some respects. In another study (3), these authors analyzed patients' drawings as to medium, subject, technic, and the like. Brown and Goitein (21) described an investigation of the drawings by normal subjects of their own bodies, made while blindfolded. The authors believe that if a drawing by a normal subject matches well that of a particular abnormal group, the normal subject's personality will show trends similar to those found in the particular psychiatric group.

Wight (168) made a detailed study of the art of Picasso from a psychoanalytic standpoint, interpreting that painter's successive styles and their common characteristics, with hypotheses regarding their unconscious motivation. Christensen (25) made a similar interpretation of Andrea del Sarto. Stainbrook and Löwenbach (156) had patients write their names and draw simple figures after electroshock treatment; resulting changes are described. Prados (137) reported on results of Rorschach tests administered to professional painters of various artistic schools. Significant common elements were: superior mentality emphasizing abstract, logical,

and constructive thinking; fear of mediocrity; strong drive for achieve-ment; richness of inner interests and stimuli for spontaneous creative thought; strong sensitiveness and emotional responsiveness to the outer world, combined with refined intellectual control.

The Visual Arts in General Education on Various Levels

In the minds of many teachers, the pressure of war and depression away from cultural values and toward the narrowly practical seemed to call for a reaffirmation of faith in these values. There was renewed emphasis on the fact that art is not merely a technic or vocation, but a possible way of living and of personality development for all.

Macgowan (91) wrote a concise summary of the aims and processes of art education, stressing the value of appreciation for the layman and creativeness for the artist and called for a program of experimental re-search. Shoemaker (154) assembled and applied the views of many con-temporary philosophers and aestheticians on the humanities, especially literature, and their place in education. Mursell (115, 116) discussed the arts as a phase of general education and stated that art is a means by which emotional values and meanings are made explicit, objective, public, com-municable. Munro (114) stated three objectives for art education: select-ing and transmitting an important part of the world's cultural heritage; developing successful professional artists, able to make a living; and de-veloping some who can make original contributions to art. Read (138) and Moholy-Nagy (101) called for a new type of art education for free men and for the reintegration of art into daily life. Howell (67) foresaw the following postwar trends: development of the appreciation of beauty; train-ing powers of observation and visual judgment; development of free cre-ative expression; realization of the unity of all arts; evaluating art in terms of life objectives. Niblett (124) stressed the need of educating feel-ing and desire along with power to think and analyze. By means of art Bickel (17) also emphasized personality development and social adjustment thru art and commented on the art museum as an advantageous place to achieve them. Schoen (149) edited a symposium on the enjoyment of the arts, with an introduction on the realm of art and the requisites for enjoyment. Munro (110) analyzed the various types of aim and value in painting and the psychological question of liking and enjoyment. Fox (48) analyzed the movies as a great new art-form, with a tremendous range of possible effects, and compared them with other arts as to their social and psychological effects on American life (47).

In spite of the confidence of art educators that art and aesthetic train-ing have a valuable part to play in general education, the forty-first year-book of the National Society for the Study of Education, devoted to *Philoso-phies of Education* (119) made almost no mention of them. The Harvard report (61) on objectives of general education gave more recognition to

the arts and other humanities, and so did Baxter (11) in reporting for a commission of American colleges on the aims of liberal education.

Faulkner and Davis (45), in appraising summer workshop art programs as part of teacher-education in general, pointed out the long trend toward emphasis on creative self-expression. Little progress has been made, except on lower age-levels, toward utilizing the values of art for growth of personality. They recommend that teachers in service should have workshops available for participation in art. Hoffman and Hoffman (65) reported on the Ladies Garment Workers Union art workshops.

The most thoro and extensive textbook on art education was that of D'Amico (32) who undertook to combine advantages of the academic and progressive schools—discipline and skill, and creative self-expression. He discussed a wide range of visual arts, and described technical devices in line with aims and principles. Winslow (170, 171, 173) approached the subject more from the standpoint of public-school administration and classroom conditions, outlining plans for physical equipment and curriculum organization.

The final report on the Owatonna Art Education Project by Ziegfeld and Smith (176) describes in detail the experimental development of a functional art program for a typical American community. Promoted by the University of Minnesota and the Public Schools of Owatonna and aided by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Carnegie Corporation, this project included a five-year study of the art needs and interests of the children and adults of Owatonna. The report covers such topics as art in the daily life of the community, methods of developing the art program in the schools, a point of view in art education, and the art program as it functioned in the school system. Five additional reports (126) present specific accounts of art units for the elementary- and secondary-school levels. These publications are a landmark in the trend toward realistic art programs for the public schools. A retrospect of this notable project was given by Tyler (163).

New Methods for Teaching Art

Several briefer studies proposed specific new methods and devices in the teaching of visual art. Guilford (58) and Stites (157) described the use of films in teaching art history and appreciation. Howell (66) reported on Cleveland experiments in teaching art appreciation by radio, while Grier (57) discussed television as a new means of art education. Cook (29) outlined a kinesthetic approach in teaching sculpture to the blind, and a short book by Harris and Piccoli (60) explained a "creative" approach to technics in sculpture. Jones (74) described an instrument for analyzing composition and design, consisting of colored lights to show contrast, mixture, and the like.

Museums received considerable attention as one of the newer agencies for teaching art, especially appreciation and history, with some scope for

technical training also. In Powel's report (136) on a five-year experiment of the General Education Board on museum work with secondary schools, the new trend toward "bringing the art museum to the school" was described in detail. Aims and specific methods were discussed for circulating exhibits in schools and for exhibits in museums especially adapted to adolescents. Defenbacher (35) described a new exhibition technic for schools and art museums. Low (85) challenged old conceptions of the museum, and urged that it be managed as a social instrument. The growth of museum educational work was summarized by Everard (41). D'Amico (33) reported on the educational program of the Museum of Modern Art and the new educational quarters of the Philadelphia Museum were described by Kimball and Benson (78). Van Loozen and Bulkley (164) reported on museum and high-school cooperation in teaching American primitive art.

The perennial problem of integrating and correlating the arts received some attention, altho few radically new approaches were recorded. Poole and Klinefelter (133) described a specific project of cooperation between the Walters Art Gallery and the Baltimore Orchestra, studying the relation of art to music in cultural history. Peck and others (127), Cooney (31), Merrick and others (99) reported on experiments in correlating the arts, while Winslow (172) discussed the integrated program from the school administrator's standpoint.

College Art Instruction

On the college level, there was searching criticism of present aims and methods, as well as a demand for more attention to art in the curriculum. There was more sympathy toward it on the part of curriculum builders than heretofore, but literature remained the chief "cultural" or "humanistic" element in general education. The need for instruction in the visual arts for all college students was not generally recognized. Increasing emphasis was placed on appreciation and understanding of the role of art in social culture. Minute historical scholarship, names, dates, and facts for their own sake had been overemphasized in college art courses, yet many championed the chronological approach as the most satisfactory. Many felt that all college students should have a chance at studio work in the arts, if possible correlated with history and appreciation. There was difference of opinion on how valuable a general college education, or even art history and theory, was for the prospective artist. There was comparatively little discussion of how the professional art student could best be given the technical and other requirements of his craft.

Goldwater (55) prepared a comprehensive survey of art teaching in American colleges, pointing out the various types of introductory, history, and studio courses given; the early classical emphasis; and the usual lack of balance between theory and practice, painting and other arts. Elsewhere (54) Goldwater discussed the place of modern art in the college

curriculum. A statement by Meiss (27) and a committee of the College Art Association discussed the place of art history in the liberal arts curriculum. They reaffirmed the value of art for emotional and imaginative development and for the expression of human thoughts about man's relation with the world. They recommended that art history should not consist merely of names, dates, and classifications, or for the training of art teachers or artists; instead, it should aim to promote enjoyment, insight, and judgment. Morey (103) pointed out the temperamental incompatibility between a critical art historian and a practicing artist and the difficulty of training an art historian properly within usual limits of graduate study. Blind spots in art history teaching were diagnosed by Low (86), and art history as a college subject was defended by Coolidge (30). Baldinger (8), Morse (105), Rusk (141), Washburn (165), Schmeckebier (146), and Hilpert (64) discussed the place of art in a liberal education. Ogden (125) reported that art teachers must be broadly equipped, well grounded in theory and practice, general and special subjectmatter.

Munro (108) stressed the possible values of aesthetics in college studies of the arts. Aesthetics should undertake to select the most important artistic elements in the world's cultural heritage, for transmission to youth. It should help to organize these in systematic ways—theoretical, historical, and practical—not fearing broad generalization, opposing over-specialization, and bringing students into firsthand contact with modern as well as ancient art. Discussing how art should be taught in the liberal arts college, Young (175) endorsed these views and defended an integrative, theoretical approach. In discussing art as a core for democratic education, Gayne (51) proposed that the art teacher help coordinate various fields of art and not be a technical specialist.

Among those who urged the value of college education for prospective artists was Longman (84), who added that the profession of an artist meets all required conditions for creative scholarship and should be directly planned for in colleges. A committee of the College Art Association under Mangravite (28) discussed courses in the practice of art and recommended that a comprehensive "thinking-doing" art curriculum be planned on all levels of education. Practice of art should be considered necessary for full understanding. In a series of four articles, Washburn (165) stated the case for creative arts in higher education: understanding and practice of the creative process are essential to full appreciation; colleges should have creative artists at work on the campus, provide for the talented art student, and give understanding to all; artists should be able to teach, and the time should be provided the artist for personal painting; traveling, contemporary shows should be provided. Danes (34) criticized the education of artists as leaving them ignorant of the materials with which they work.

There were signs of a trend in requirements for the Ph.D. and Ed.D.

degrees, contrasting with the traditional "scholarly research" thesis toward allowing credit for research and theses of the following types: a studio problem, as in producing a painting; solving a practical problem in a teaching situation; selecting and reorganizing art content (theory, history, aesthetics) for use in teaching others or adding to the literature of the subject; statement of an art philosophy and educational procedure for teaching some branch of art. Seashore (151) reported the vote by deans of graduate schools of the Association of American Universities on broadening thesis requirements to include creative, imaginative work on a par with traditional research; theses can take any form that can be evaluated as evidence of creative scholarship or exhibition of artistic skill. A thesis by Kinzinger (79) referred to a series of three oil paintings; one by Dietrich (38) dealt with use of design materials in teaching. Del Dosso (36) presented as a thesis a plan for providing art experiences for the schools of New Mexico, and Moreno (102) worked out an art curriculum for the Puerto Rico schools.

The Growth of Aesthetics as a Descriptive Science

Even under difficult war conditions, there was a marked upturn of interest and activity in aesthetics. Concretely, this involved the formation of the first national professional association in the field—the American Society for Aesthetics—and the publication of a quarterly magazine—the *Journal of Aesthetics and Art Criticism.* Thru such means teachers, writers, and artists in many arts were encouraged to collaborate more systematically on common problems. Various philosophical and scientific approaches, especially those of psychology, cultural history, and the social sciences, were considered in relation to the problems of aesthetics.

Conferences discussing the future of aesthetics were reported by Munro (112) and reviewed by Alford (1). Munro (113) outlined the advantages of organized cooperation thru a professional society, thru encouraging continuous research along various lines, and called for new American approaches based on European achievements. He showed how aesthetics could function educationally as a selective and integrative factor in the assimilation of world culture (108), distinguished the main approaches in contemporary aesthetics (107), and outlined a method for analyzing form in any art (111). Gilbert (52) analyzed recent trends in aesthetics which have supplanted Croce's influence: semantics, psychological study of sublimated dreams, and exploration of the meaning of symbols.

Psychological approaches to aesthetics were especially active. Hungerland (70) discussed the problem of descriptive analysis of style in the visual arts from the standpoint of Gestalt psychology. He suggested that different sets of expectations are applicable to and strongly influence the perception of different kinds of art, and that these sets are determined largely by familiarity with the different styles. Gotshalk (56) discussed the problem of educating aesthetic taste. Boas and others in a symposium

(26) discussed the relation of art to culture in anthropological and philosophical terms. Schoen (148) summarized current psychological thought on the nature of aesthetic experience, especially regarding the relation of the aesthetic to the practical, and the detail to the whole. The aesthetic process was more fully analyzed by Morris (104), who found it to be a process of arousal and fulfilment of anticipation thru the progressive contemplation of the object. Since the aesthetic experience is essentially relational, the author objected to atomistic analyses; aesthetic purpose and meaning were explained in terms of an expectation which is set up and satisfied in the internal relationships of the aesthetic object.

There were many more specific studies, of which the following are typical. Pickford (132) analyzed the effect of social factors upon the style of painting of individualistic painters, such as Cézanne; groups of painters, such as the Barbizon school; and traditional schools, such as the Mogul and Russian painters. Individual tendencies and family influences were compared with effects resulting from the influence of particular leaders, general social changes, other cultures, contacts, and interactions. The term "artistic intent," as used in art history, was analyzed by Hungerland (69). Peel (128) reported on an investigation of preferences involving the use of artistic types as criteria; it provided a basis of analysis for calculating the estimate of liking in terms of the artistic qualities of the items and for analyzing the correlations into factors characterizing the group of persons and criteria. Peters also (131) made an experimental study of aesthetic judgment, considering it under three aspects: attitudes, or the response aspect of pleasantness or unpleasantness; perception, or the stimulus aspect of aesthetic experience; and experience, or the genetic aspect of affection. Powel, Thorndike, and Woodyard (135) studied the aesthetic life of communities by visiting seven cities and giving them aesthetic ratings. The items assessed included homes, schools, churches, front yards, and shop windows. Zucker (177) discussed the use of space in architecture, sculpture, and city planning.

The Place of Art in Intercultural Cooperation

The increasing interest of American education in understanding foreign cultures, including their aesthetic aspects, was further stimulated by the war, with its global involvement and resultant hopes of eventual world understanding. In sessions of various educational groups, many speakers called for more intercultural study in the schools. Melchior (97) explained the place of art in the U. S. Government's Inter-American demonstration center project. Cherrington (24) discussed the values of intercultural education from the standpoint of the State Department's cultural relations program, and Tchou (160) outlined the teacher's part in developing world citizens. Glace and others (53) discussed world understanding fostered by art education and cultural contributions of the arts to national and international understanding. Scientific bases for a new approach to

the analysis of culture and personality were laid by Kardiner (75) and Linton (83), who combined psychoanalytic methods and hypotheses with those of ethnology in extensive field investigations of various cultures.

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CHAPTER VI

School Instruction in Music

PAUL R. FARNSWORTH

THE WAR has quite naturally caused a cut-back in the amount of scholarly work done in the field of music during the period under review. There are signs, however, of a renewed interest both in research and in publication. *The Journal of Musicology* has reappeared after having skipped a number of its publication dates but is not yet back on its regular publication schedule. The papers read at the 1939 meetings of the International Congress of Musicology have finally been published (29) after a delay of almost five years. And the editorial board of *The Journal of Aesthetics and Art Criticism* has been revamped. Its new policy will be to encourage the publication of articles of a research nature as well as those which are more philosophical in character.

General Sources

The Music Teachers National Association has continued thru 1943 its excellent policy of publishing among its yearly *Proceedings* brief bibliographies of the experimental studies on the psychology of music (48, 49). In its 1944 publication a still briefer list was included in a bibliography on "Literature about Music" (57). Robinson (47) has collected the American war songs commonly heard among the men in World War II and has found that they can be placed in a rather small number of categories on the basis of what they are about: food, pests, the terrors of war, the enemy, sex, and sentiment expressed for loved ones or for home. Schoen (50) has written an interesting little book whose concern is with the philosophy of music as it relates to psychology and education. And altho the publication of Mursell's *Music in American Schools* (37) was noted in the April 1943 issue of the *Review of Educational Research* (35), its importance is such that it should again be called to the attention of the music educator, particularly since its publication date falls within the period now being considered.

Creativity

Several articles have appeared in what is perhaps the most difficult field of research in all musicology, that of creativity. Doig (10, 11) has continued her observations on the musical creations of children six to sixteen years of age. Among the tendencies disclosed were strong preferences for scalewise melodies and for major keys. Observers at the Pillsbury Foundation (33, 34) have published two more short monographs. These give illustrations of the spontaneous creations of preschool children and prove that the reading and writing of music can be taught to the very young. What stimulates the musician to create has been considered by three British

investigators (59). Unfortunately, nothing beyond what any intelligent layman might suggest was disclosed by this questionnaire study.

Formal Test Data

Antrim (2) has mentioned the fact that high-school students of music often have higher IQ's than do students who are not studying music. This phenomenon has led him to believe that the study of music makes for better concentration. While this theory may very well be valid, the possibility must not be overlooked that there may exist selective forces which encourage the brighter students to study music. Gilbert (16) has studied the sex differences disclosed in giving the Kwalwasser-Dykema tests to 1000 college students. These differences, which favored the girls, appeared only among the musically trained subjects. And as the trained girls had had more formal instruction than had the trained boys, it would seem likely that the score superiority was a function mainly, if not wholly, of musical training.

Beckham (4) has found that the Kwalwasser-Dykema battery and music teachers agree reasonably well in picking out musical children. His teachers' choices tended to be far more musical than were those chosen on the basis of either IQ or chronological age. Dunlevy (12) has verified an earlier finding that scores on the older Seashore battery correlate appreciably with amount of musical training, and has found that her highest scoring subjects showed the greatest preference for "classical" music. Woods and Martin (64) gave the Kwalwasser-Dykema test battery to 578 pupils in the sixth grades of Cabell County, West Virginia. Negroes were found to be superior to whites and girls to boys. However, as the musically untrained and culturally retarded pupils generally made the poorest scores and as the training, cultural, and motivational variables were not brought under experimental control, the racial and sex differences reported are impossible to interpret.

One of the most persistent problems in the field of musical capacities, the issue of the improvability of pitch discrimination, seems finally to have been satisfactorily settled by the recent work of Wyatt (65). The Seashore pitch measure, oscillator tests, and a pitch test of Wyatt's own devising were given to eight music and eight non-music students who were then trained over a considerable period of time in the art of pitch discrimination. Not only was enormous improvement disclosed but the benefits were shown in octaves other than those in which the training took place. This work would seem to put the "pitch weak" in the class of the nonreader. If a child does not acquire the full concept of pitch or the technic of good reading in the early grades, it will be difficult but not impossible for him to achieve more adequate responses when he becomes an adult.

A study somewhat paralleling Wyatt's in its conception was that by O'Brien (39) who tested two groups of boys on the Kwalwasser-Dykema

Quality Discrimination Test. One group was then drilled for three months on the recognition of instrumental tones. Later retests showed no appreciable improvement in either group, a finding which would not have been anticipated by the reader of Wyatt's study. It was most regrettable that reliance was made on a test whose reliability is so low. Had the new Seashore or some other good test been employed, meaningful conclusions might have been possible. At present the findings must be considered as decidedly tentative in nature.

After the employment of a number of musical and other tests on 200 high-school students and the application of factor analysis to his data, Karlin (19) concluded that there is no *general* auditory factor which could describe his correlational matrix. He found instead some eight group factors which apparently had to do with pitch-quality discrimination, loudness discrimination, auditory span function, memory span, and a number of Gestalt phenomena. Lundin (25) has added to our list of music ability tests measures of interval discrimination, melodic and harmonic transposition, and melodic and harmonic sequences. He has reported reliabilities of approximately .73 and validities (based on the pooled ratings of teachers) ranging from .13 to .61. Madison (26) has made an exhaustive study of the entire problem of the discrimination of intervals, and has constructed a test in this area which has a retest reliability of about .75. This new measure correlates from .52 to .71 with measures of tonal learning and from .60 to .72 with grades in music dictation and sight-singing.

Perception and Learning

It has been suggested by Varro (56) that there are five life stages in musical development, each of which raises rather different problems for the teacher: babyhood, preschool period, elementary-school days, preadolescent period, and period of adolescence. O'Brien (38) has reopened the controversial problem of whole versus part learning and has come to the commonsense conclusion that, in the main, the part method is a little more economical. However, as we still do not know how large a "part" may be before it ceases to behave as a "part," it is difficult to carry over O'Brien's finding to other musical situations. An investigation of some of the factors which lead to the efficient reading of piano music was made by Lannert and Ullman (24) on nine advanced piano students. Long-continued practice in sightreading was found to be a prime necessity for good reading. The pupil should try to perceive both right- and left-hand scores at a single glance, know the leger-line notes, keep ocular contact with the score, preview time and key signatures before starting to play, and attempt to train the imagery.

Another of the periodic attempts to condense history into a few laboratory hours has been made by Krugman (23) who by playing both "classical" and "nonclassical" compositions to seven subjects once a week for eight weeks was able to alter the feeling tone toward these pieces from

one of indifference to a state of pleasantness. Contrary to what the present reviewer found many years ago (unpublished data), Williams (60) could detect no changes in the feelings of her 400 subjects toward a Bach overture when, after playing it along with other serious compositions, she mixed it in with fox trots. The order of presentation seemed to have no effect on the degree of acceptance. One possible explanation for this surprising finding is that nowadays Bach is often surrounded by jazz on our radio concerts. Thus we have been "trained" to change our attitudinal sets with great rapidity. In earlier times we perhaps gave the setting more careful attention and so were more displeased when serious music and jazz were played on the same program.

Changing taste, as it is reflected in the repertoires of many of the world's greatest orchestras and opera companies, has been extensively studied by Mueller and Hevner (36). Their work has emphasized the fact that each composition has, in theory, an optimum number of repetitions which will elicit maximum enjoyment. With repeated hearing there are at first increasing aesthetic returns. Later, a law of diminishing aesthetic returns appears to operate. Musical taste is learned just as any other set of folkways is learned, and obeys the social-psychological laws of folkway behavior.

During the time span of this review, there has appeared Jacobsen's concluding article in his series on eye-movements in reading vocal and instrumental music (18). His work has made it clear that the mere training of eye-movements will not necessarily lead to efficient reading. He has recommended the use of flash-cards, concentrated drill by the instrumentalist in the reading of the bass clef and leger lines, and more detailed study by the vocalist of the larger and ascending intervals. Immature readers, he has found, tend to sing sharp, to be slow and inaccurate, to recognize less than one-half a note per pause, and to spend equal time on words and notation. Mature readers were found to sing flat if in error, to be both fast and accurate, to recognize between two and three notes per pause, and to spend two-thirds of their time on notation. Weaver (58) has been continuing his doctoral studies on the eye-movements of trained musicians. Reading pauses were found to last from a quarter to a half a second, with between one and two notes executed per pause and three to five notes perceived in one span (note that Jacobsen's value was smaller). The treble parts of chords were usually read before the bass parts. Reading was found to be accomplished thru both vertical- and horizontal-type movements, the former predominating in the playing of minuets and the latter in hymns. In another study with Van Nuys (55), Weaver found that memory span decreased roughly as the complexity of the note relations increased. The melodic and rhythmic factors functioned as limiting conditions except when they were extremely simple.

It has generally been agreed that the reason listeners tend to prefer "low fidelity" to "high fidelity" in the tonal qualities of their radios is

that the unfortunate experiences of a lifetime with radio tones of poor quality have conditioned their tastes. Chinn and Eisenberg (9) have attacked this learning hypothesis by demonstrating that the "low fidelity" is preferred by the musically sophisticated as well as by the naive. This preference persists even tho the listener is told that a wider tonal band is mechanically closer to the sounds of real life. The authors feel that these data tend to confirm the hypothesis that we prefer what we do because it sounds better to us and not because our tastes have been spoiled. The reviewer finds it difficult to follow this line of logic, for why cannot even the musician possess one set of listening habits for the orchestra and another for his radio? One can point to many close parallels in other areas of psychology.

Therapy

An extensive literature is being accumulated on the therapeutic effects of industrial music (3, 54) and on the good that music can do the hospitalized (1, 14). There are also many articles on the morale-building aspects of music (6). While this topic does not directly concern the music educator, it should perhaps be considered briefly as there may well be some carryover to educational situations. Admittedly, most of the studies in this area are anecdotal in character and almost completely without scientific controls. Yet more and more it is becoming apparent that music can serve as a medium for the projection of psychological conflicts (63). Thru music the child may obtain a much needed mental catharsis. And while it is still a moot question whether the output of even repetitive work is increased appreciably by the hearing of music, there is no doubt but that many listeners tend to feel less tired and bored (21, 22, 30). It is also clear that music can serve to enhance in-group feeling and social solidarity.

What Music Tells and Does to Feeling

While the linguistic possibilities of music (43) have been under consideration for centuries, they have been put under scientific scrutiny only within the past few decades. But we can now say with considerable assurance that music has no extensive semantic or *meaning* value that has not been put into it by training. Thus, those of us who possess tonal-visual associations which differ markedly from those of Walt Disney may have found his *Fantasia* extremely distasteful (13). That most of us do have tonal-visual associations has been shown in a number of researches at Dartmouth College (20, 40). Informal and incidental training can attach associations to our music so that it in turn can elicit *moods* which are shared in considerable degree within any given culture area (8, 17, 46, 62). These associations which we hold in common are reflected to some degree in our agreements on tonal preferences (27).

One would suspect that the presentation of program notes should affect, in some degree at least, our musical enjoyments. That such an effect is

present has been demonstrated by Williams (61). who found that the modification of preference due to the use of program notes varies directly with the amount of musical training the reader has had. The psycho-analysts, in keeping with their dogmas, maintain that the mood responses which music elicits are fundamentally bound to innate forces within us. Thus, Montani (32) has claimed that the minor modes are associated with those feelings and moods which characterize the castration complex. Gardner and Pickford (15) have illustrated the great importance of context in music. Dissonance, they found, varies with the physical composition of the chord, the listener's experience, training and traditions, and the musical "intent" of the passage as a whole.

Pedagogy

A book which will be of value to only those teachers of music who have never taken an elementary course in psychology is that written by P. C. Buck, a British professor of music (7). This tiny textbook is an undocumented "rewrite" of a more scholarly manuscript which was destroyed in 1939 by the Luftwaffe. The teacher who wishes to demonstrate to his classes how foreign culture elements are brought into a new culture, and how they modify it and are then modified in turn, should read Slotkin's article (52) on the interrelations of Negro popular music and "white jazz." And if, after reading the present review, the musical reader still believes that taste is not a folkway but emerges instead from biological structure, he may wish to read Rashevsky's thought-provoking but highly technical articles (44, 45).

The teacher of music who desires an exposition of the physical dynamics of music should read the recent articles by Pepinsky (42) and Stout (53) which were written particularly for people with his training and interests. If he desires, instead, illustrations and accounts of tone quality, he should become acquainted with the article by Borchers (5) and particularly with that by Seashore (51), in which a diagram of the quality characteristics of a beautiful vocal tone is given and the characteristics are analyzed. If our hypothetical music teacher is more interested in the violin tone, he should note the article by Masters (28) in which an analysis of the overtone spectra of the author's own violin is given. More general articles of worth on the physics and psychology of tone are those by Pepinsky (41), by Young (66), and by Miller (31).

Needed Studies

To the reviewer it would seem that the psychology of music is weakest in the area where it touches social psychology, anthropology and educational sociology. The music educator tends to know so little of the work done on folkways that he too often holds blindly to absolutes in music and so accepts less readily than he should data which demonstrate the folkway-nature of his tools. That this weakness has been recognized by others is

shown by the fact that a new curriculum is being introduced at Julliard which will stress the social sciences. The music educator is rarely a virtuoso performer. He is rather a professional worker who has unique opportunities to increase human satisfactions. To make the most of these opportunities he must be fully aware of the social forces around him.

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FOREWORD

THIS is the sixth issue to review research on teacher personnel. The chapter headings of this issue correspond almost identically with those of the preceding issue. This correspondence makes it easy to trace the trends of research in teacher personnel. But a casual perusal of the five preceding issues raises the question as to whether research in the field of teacher personnel may not be the victim of self-complacency.

This issue reviews hundreds of publications and its authors admit having examined other hundreds not included in the review. They cover three years of the most crucial period in the history of the United States, yet from the materials presented, one gains no new insight into the purpose or function of the teaching profession, no feeling of urgency for reform, no vision of the new role of the teacher in building a new world, no challenge to research in teacher education.

The facts of teacher shortages are recorded. The need for higher salaries is noted. Married women have returned to the classroom but there appears no conviction as to whether they should remain. Here and there an isolated bit of research throws new light on such problems as supply and demand, recruitment, selection, salaries, tenure, pensions, certification, and legal status of teachers. Here and there is a suggestion of new research needed, but nowhere does the suggestion cut thru the patterns long established.

Frequent reference is made to publications of the Commission on Teacher Education but the reader finds little to suggest that the Commission questioned patterns of established thought or challenged the profession to new and fundamental research into the problems of teacher personnel.

The teacher in the classroom of the schools and colleges of the United States holds the key to the future of this country and of the United Nations. Problems ahead call for new vision, for fundamental and far-reaching research. Is not the time at hand for breaking new ground?

J. CAYCE MORRISON, *Chairman,*
Editorial Board

CHAPTER I

Supply and Demand in Teaching

EARL W. ANDERSON and REUBEN H. ELIASSEN

Reports dealing with teacher supply and demand published during the years 1943, 1944, and 1945 included two doctors' dissertations (29, 57), one nationwide investigation (36), one regional study (65), seven state studies (1, 19, 23, 29, 56, 67, 76), many reports of state departments of education, estimates of future shortage (33, 52, 56, 57, 64, 89), and remedies tried or recommended (26, 68, 69). Several reports were limited to one specific area of teaching such as college (3, 4), secondary (78), elementary (7, 12, 62), rural (86, 95), industrial arts (13), home economics (23), physical education (33), vocational agriculture (32), and preschool (80). Considerable attention was given to the immediate effects of the war on teacher supply and demand (8, 9, 25, 42, 58, 93, 96). Extensive state surveys were reported in Georgia (1), California (56), Iowa (23), and Missouri (29). An investigation in 1945 by Elder (36) was based upon current reports from thirty-seven state departments of education. A regional study covering nineteen states was made by Maul (65) for the North Central Association. Mead and his associates investigated technics of meeting teacher shortage (26, 68, 69).

The Current Situation

During each of the three years covered shortages of teachers in all fields were revealed, increasing in seriousness each year (39). In 1943, the areas taught by men had the greatest shortages; in 1944 and 1945, the elementary schools were most critically affected. This situation was accentuated by the decided increase in the number of children attending the lower elementary school grades. The end of the war brought some men back to high-school teaching, even creating occasional temporary surpluses, but other veterans took wives or sweethearts out of school positions, especially the elementary ones, immediately upon their return to civilian life. The rural schools had greater shortages each year than did urban districts (38, 39, 93, 94).

Causes of the Teacher Shortage

The draft, the pull of war industries, and the appeal of the armed forces were listed often as major causes of teacher shortage; relatively low salaries were noted almost universally as a basic reason. By 1944 some 280,000 had left teaching since Pearl Harbor; that year one teacher in seven was new to his position (42). More than a dozen reporters cited the great drop in the number enrolled in teacher preparation courses (13, 38, 42, 94). In

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1945, since the close of the war, it was noted that former teachers were not returning rapidly to their instructional duties (1, 65) ; that a number of emergency teachers brought back to help out in the crisis had left the schools shortly after the war ended; and that teachers' salaries, which were increased materially during and since the war period, did not attract many former teachers. In many cases those returning from service in the armed forces sought nonteaching employment or attended college.

Reported losses in school effectiveness caused by the teacher shortage included: expansion of circuit teaching, several hundred thousand pupils without teachers, classes enlarged beyond the point of efficiency, teachers overworked, almost no men left in the schools. (93, 96), increased restlessness among teachers and pupils (5, 98), teachers assigned to areas for which they were not prepared (5, 93), elimination of courses and of extra-curriculum activities and consolidation of departments, courses, and schools, and much inferior teaching done (5). There was an appalling turnover in the teaching staffs—as high as 42 percent in 1945 in the rural areas of one state (81).

Efforts to Meet the Problem of Teacher Shortage

Lowering of standards for teachers was a necessary step during the period covered in this review because of the shortage of qualified teachers. Elder (36) estimated that in 1945 there were 175,000 emergency teaching certificates issued in the United States. Maul (65) found that for 1945 one-fifth of the elementary school teachers in nineteen states were teaching under substandard certificates. More than 50,000 teaching positions were discontinued during the war years (36). By the end of 1944, some 4000 agriculture teachers had left teaching during the preceding two years, causing the closing of 1241 departments of agriculture (32).

To get additional teaching staffs, all possible sources of teacher supply were canvassed thoroly. Retired teachers were recalled, and those of retirement age were kept on. Some students in college teacher-education courses were accelerated; others were put into fulltime teaching positions before completing their courses. High-school students were used as assistants in the elementary schools. There was utilization of ministers, lawyers, and other well-educated adults. Efforts were made to get teachers deferred from military service. Teachers who were untrained or whose training was out-of-date seriously needed assistance. Hence, efforts were increased to provide refresher courses, increased guidance, and aid in curriculum studies.

Recommendations by Investigators

During the war years it was recommended that: prospective teachers be urged to teach as a patriotic duty (2, 61, 75, 85), teachers be frozen in their positions for the duration, they be drafted and placed in uniform (21), valuable teachers in the armed services be assigned to schools as teachers,

more teachers be deferred from military service, state and national departments of education cooperate in the recruitment and placement of teachers (46, 98), federal aid be provided to secure more adequate salaries for teachers and better school support (27, 28), and the school program include double shifts each day (45) and classes on Saturdays and during summers (2). The later reports recommended: increased salaries, more aggressive policies of teacher recruitment in high schools (40, 56, 99), concerted efforts to induce former teachers to return to the profession (72), encouragement of emergency teachers to stay in the classroom and take refresher courses (56, 66, 99), and more reciprocity between states in certification practices (91). Many reports included recommendations that state programs be launched to provide for improved teacher welfare (39). In Pennsylvania in 1944, a commission on teacher recruitment went to work with one member working with colleges, another directing recruitment in high schools, a third concentrating on cooperation in high-school guidance personnel, while a fourth developed publicity programs for use on the radio and in the movies. Herlinger reported that in Mt. Lebanon, Pennsylvania, an original number of eight high-school students interested in teaching expanded to thirty-three when teachers and the administration concentrated their efforts in interesting these students in teaching (54).

Predictions

Predictions indicate that the teacher shortage is likely to continue for five to fifteen years (1, 7, 36). One investigator (7) forecasts that the teacher shortage will be most acute in 1946-47, but that it will improve after that time. Jelinek and Tonge (57) wrote a doctor's dissertation based largely on forecasts of teacher supply and demand in California schools until 1960. Their conclusion was that the secondary teacher supply will prove adequate in California almost ten years sooner than the elementary supply. They predicted a rapidly growing student population in California due to increased birth rate and the influx of people to that state.

School enrolments were predicted to reach an all-time high in the 1950's. With 2.000,000 more children in the schools in 1955 than there were in 1940, it is estimated that this will call for an additional 100.000 teachers (35), and that new needs and an expanded program will demand the services of 400,000 teachers for new positions following the war (76).

There were some beneficial effects of the teacher shortage, however, which may become permanent. Efforts to establish teachers' salaries on a basis which corresponds with the importance of their services to the community were frequently reported. Other reforms put into practice were the elimination of many small schools; the acceptance of married women as teachers; improved provisions for teachers' tenure, retirement, and sick leaves; and better teaching conditions for inexperienced teachers. Thus, community apathy was superseded by cooperativeness and sensitivity to the importance of good schools and adequately trained and rewarded teachers.

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CHAPTER II

The Measurement and Prediction
of Teaching Efficiency

ARVIL S. BARR

Studies in this field may be roughly grouped into four categories: (a) those which attempt to answer the question, what is a good teacher? (b) those relating to specific aspects and factors of teaching efficiency; (c) those relating to the prediction of teaching efficiency; and (d) those relating to the measurement of teaching ability.

Qualities Essential to Success

Armstrong (2), Dodge (7), Haggard (8), Lamson (11), and Smith (20) have reported studies of the qualities essential to success, particularly at the college level. Armstrong (2) lists the qualifications of primary importance under four categories: (a) teaching ability; (b) scholarship and scholarly ability; (c) experience; and (d) personal qualities: reasoning power, originality, memory, alertness, accuracy, application, cooperation, moral attitude, health, and zeal for investigation. The qualifications of secondary importance are: (a) standing in the profession, (b) public and community services, and (c) membership in learned societies. Dodge (7) found successful teachers: (a) more at ease in social contacts, (b) more willing to assume responsibility, (c) less subject to fears and worries, (d) more sensitive to the opinions of others, and (e) slower in making decisions than less successful teachers. Haggard (8) reported the qualities of college teachers most desired by the freshmen at Western Washington College of Education as follows: (a) skill in teaching, (b) personality to put the course across, (c) sense of humor, (d) ability to get along with students, (e) broadmindedness, (f) knowledge of subjectmatter, (g) patience and helpfulness, (h) consideration in giving assignments, (i) appearance, (j) speaking voice, (k) fairness or impartiality, and (l) consideration of students' time. Lamson (11) reported the following qualities as listed by New Jersey State Teachers College seniors: (a) knowledge of subjectmatter, (b) personality to put course across, (c) fairness and impartiality, (d) ability or skill in teaching and organizing subjectmatter, (e) ability to get along with students, (f) sincerity and honesty, (g) sense of humor, and (h) appearance. Smith (20) reports the qualities desired in good college teaching as reported by Purdue seniors and freshmen as follows: (a) sympathetic interest in students, (b) sense of proportion and humor, (c) knowledge of subject, (d) open-minded and progressive

attitude, (e) stimulating imagination, (f) personality, (g) ability to get along with students, (h) ability in teaching and organizing subjectmatter, (i) personal appearance, and (j) fairness and impartiality. A large amount of agreement will be found among the studies of student opinion.

Factors in Teaching Efficiency

A number of studies have been reported relating to various factors in teaching efficiency. Brookover (5) studied the relation of certain social factors to teaching ability, and concluded that while teachers who have closer personal relations with their students are considered better by their students and rated higher by their employers, they tend, on the average, to teach slightly less history as measured by tests of information. Hult (10) studied the relationship between eight measures of factors thought to be related to teaching efficiency and the teaching efficiency of nineteen teachers at the end of their first year of teaching. She found correlations with the criterion (a composite of six ratings) as follows: (a) For the Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability, —.17; (b) for the Cooperative Reading Comprehensive Test, —.12; (c) for the Cooperative General Culture Test, —.17; (d) for total university grade-point average, .44; (e) for the course mark in educational psychology, .15; (f) for the final examination grade in the educational psychology course based upon a judgment test, .37; (g) for an objective test over the text, .18; and (h) for practice teaching associated with the course in educational psychology, .17. Hult was primarily concerned with the contribution of a particular course in educational psychology to teaching efficiency. While achievement varied somewhat from class to class and instructor to instructor, the results on the average are summarized by correlations (e), (f), (g), and (h) above. Only one is large enough to differ from zero by an amount that is statistically significant. Retan (15) found that emotionally stable individuals make better teachers than emotionally unstable persons. Henrikson (9) reports low correlation (.20±.03) between voice and teaching success. The author suggests that the result may be due in part to the unreliability of the ratings of both "voice" and "teaching ability."

Smalzried and Remmers (19) and Hellfritzsch (3) report factor analysis of teaching ability. Smalzried and Remmers, using the Purdue Rating Scale for Instructors, calculated the factor loading for the ten traits of which this scale is composed. The loading suggests two factors: (a) empathy, meaning understanding of pupils or pupil-centered teaching; (b) professional maturity, including intelligence, self-reliance, teaching effectiveness, etc. Hellfritzsch, using nineteen different measures in one study and twenty different measures in another, reported factor loading as follows: (a) general knowledge and mental ability; (b) teaching rating scale factor; (c) personal, emotional, and social adjustment; and (d) an eulogizing attitude toward the teaching profession.

Prediction of Teaching Efficiency

Martin (13), Seagoe (16, 17), and Tudhope (22) reported prediction studies. Martin found that superintendents' ratings were an unsatisfactory criterion of teaching efficiency, at least unpredictable. With an average of four years' marks as the criterion, he found that entrance test scores in English, science, history, and mathematics; high-school personality ratings; and high-school standings were among the factors of greatest predictive value. The multiple correlation for:

1. Nine entrance requirements and four years' marks was .65.
2. Thirteen variables, including nine entrance requirements and four first semester variables with four years' marks was .86.
3. Six variables, selected at the end of two years in college, with the average of four years' marks was .93.

Seagoe administered twenty-one tests representing five areas, namely, intelligence and special abilities, achievement, personality, attitudes and interests, and teaching prognosis to persons preparing to become elementary teachers. The linguistic factor in intelligence, general culture, knowledge of contemporary affairs, promise in educational courses, and general teaching aptitude were most selective. In a later study (17) the correlations with the University of California Rating Scale for Practice Teaching were reported. Teaching success did not correlate significantly with intelligence, special abilities or achievement, interests or attitudes; significant correlations were found for the Humm-Wadsworth and Bell; the Bernreuter FI-C and Thurstone approached significance. Among the teaching prognosis tests, the Morris Trait Index correlated significantly with success, and the Coxe-Orleans approached significance. Tudhope (22) found a high correlation between teaching ability as measured by the college final mark and teaching ability as measured after at least three years' experience, the coefficient of correlation being .81 for the whole group: .84 for the men teachers and .77 for the women teachers.

Measurement of Teaching Ability

From a survey of the literature relating to the measurement of teaching ability, it would seem that less attention has been given to rating devices and relatively more attention to other objective measures. Antell (1) presented an inventory for ascertaining teacher understanding. Leonard (12) and Posey (14) summarized the dangers involved in rating devices. Shuey (18) found the Wilke Personality Rating Scale to possess a reliability of not far from .78. Gotham (3) found from a study of the validity and reliability of a number of tests that rating scales and inventories correlated only reasonably well with pupil change, the correlations ranging from –.14 to .43. Cox (6) found that teachers in general either defeated their own purposes in their handling of problem cases by making the problems worse, or they used technics unrelated to the problem.

Rostker (3), Rolfe (3), and La Duke (3), using a criterion of pupil change, report upon the validity and reliability of a very large number of teacher measures. Their results are summarized in Table I. While they found very few single measures to possess high validity, they were successful in building up composites that correlated reasonably well with pupil change. Rostker secured from a composite of fourteen measures a multiple R of .85; Rolfe a multiple R of .63 from a composite of nine measures; and

TABLE I

Summary of Validity Coefficients

	Rostker	La Duke	Rolfe
Wrightstone Abilities	58		
American Council Psychological	57	53	— 10
Hartman Social	52		38
Yeager Attitudes	45	16	22
Torgerson Mental-Hygiene	45	24	
Teachers College Psychological	40		05
Community Planning	39		
Health Test	37		
American Council Government Civics	36		— 01
Bernreuter (B–n)	— 31		— 14
Bernreuter (F–c)	— 27		
Bernreuter (B–d)	25		.04
Bernreuter (F–s)	— 13		
Bernreuter (B–s)	20		— 11
Orientation	30		— 06
Almy-Sorenson (Composite)	.26		.36
Michigan Rating (Composite)	23		39
Morris Trait Index "L"	20		— 17
Washburne Social Adjustment Inv.	.13		06
Teacher Problems	11		
Stanford (T–A)	10		08
Stanford (A–R)	04		— 15
Stanford (T–R)	02		— 13
Harnly Purposes		13	
Harnly Policies		02	
Harnly Objectives		05	
Harnly Methods		— 32	
Harnly Total (Liberalism)		— 02	
Jackson Social Proficiency		— 37	
Torgerson (Composite)	34		43
Personality			— 30
Wrightstone Civic Beliefs			29
Teacher-Pupil Relationship			.22
Sims Socio-Economic Status			— 15
Personal Fitness			35
School Size			31
Salary			22
Experience			10

La Duke a multiple R of .80 from four measures chosen on the basis of previous research.

Troyer (21) describes a number of devices used by the Commission on Teacher Education as they relate to initial student selection; orientation and guidance; general education; professional education; student teaching follow-up studies; growth in service; and special activities. Among the technics discussed are principals' ratings, faculty ratings, psychiatrists' ratings, social agencies' ratings, psychological examinations, employers' reports, speech test ratings, handwriting quality, health ratings, a contemporary affairs test, the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, a hearing test, test talks with students, the Cooperative English Test, the Wesley Test of Social Terms, the Minnesota Personality Scale, the Bell Adjustment Inventory, an inventory of activities, an inventory of reading, an interest index, a test for locating information, the Cooperative General Culture Test, the Ohio Teaching Record, student-teacher relationships, a scale of social beliefs, and various profiles based upon these.

Summary

There has been a relatively great amount of activity in the measurement and prediction of teaching ability during the three-year period covered by this summary. The main trends and emphases for this period may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. There appeared to be a growing interest in the qualities that characterized the good teacher at the college level.
2. Very few studies of teacher rating scales as instruments for the evaluation of teaching efficiency were reported.
3. Attention seemed to have shifted to more objective tests and inventories; Rostker and La Duke reported studies wherein different combinations of these were combined into composite measures of teaching ability.
4. Interests in the prediction of teaching efficiency continued; studies by Martin and Seagoe are typical of this area.
5. Troyer and others found measurements extensively used in all areas of teacher selection, guidance, education, placement, and follow-up.
6. While no new statistical devices were developed during the period, correlation technics and factor analyses were fairly systematically applied in several instances.

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CHAPTER III

Recruitment, Institutional Selection, and Guidance of Teachers

CLIFFORD P. ARCHER

PROFESSIONAL literature reveals a definite trend toward greater emphasis (4) on recruiting individuals with intellectual and personal qualifications who are likely to make good teachers and more emphasis on personality as a criterion for selection. Increased emphasis on guidance with attempts to remove handicaps to successful teaching are also noticeable (4, 9). There seems to be a growing recognition that there is no one clear pattern (6) for a successful teacher, that high scholarship and high abstract intelligence (10, 12, 23) may be more significant for the teacher of academic areas like mathematics, science, social studies, and English; and that tests of aptitude for special abilities such as music (2), typing (12), and physical education may be significant for selection of those who propose to major in those areas. Evidence seems to indicate that a combination of criteria have higher predictive value for teacher education (13, 4) than a single criterion. Some evidence (25) indicates that interests in teaching may be formed as a result of experiences in the elementary or junior high school.

Recruiting Teachers

Herlinger (8) reports a study of high-school students who did not wish to enter teaching. An analysis of the reasons given included: no talent for teaching, decided on other occupation, social life, lack of scholarship, salary, and insufficient funds to go to school. He appointed a committee of seven teachers to render guidance service and to give high-school seniors correct information about the profession. After such guidance thirty-seven candidates for teaching were found in the 1944 class of 258 seniors. These candidates showed greatest intentions toward teaching in the elementary school and in special fields where the demands are greatest. All were found to be in the upper quartile of the senior class in scholarship.

Stroh, Jewett, and Butler (22) report an analysis of 1254 replies to a questionnaire, addressed to members of Delta Kappa Gamma Society, well distributed geographically and among various levels of teaching. Answers given to the question as to what influenced them to enter the profession brought the following most frequent replies: desire to serve society, few other remunerative occupations for women, admiration for some older man or woman teacher, consciousness of teaching aptitude, member of family of teachers, prestige, economic security, and suggestions of other members of the profession. A desire to teach seemed to have been very important in influencing the decision of teachers reporting. Economic considerations and

family pressure did not seem to be very important motives. Nearness to a teachers college did not seem to be an important factor in choice of occupation in the opinions of teachers studied. The motives for entering teaching seem to agree with the Tudhope (25) study of 693 students preparing for work in the profession. He drew up a list of seventeen motives which were checked by the 216 men and 427 women students who expected to teach in secondary and elementary schools. Anonymous replies were returned with motives ranked in order of importance. Ranks were weighted and percents of possible firsts, seconds and so forth computed. The desirable motives such as interest in subject, fondness for children and for teaching, and possibility of doing good were ranked as most influential by the majority of students; while selfish motives such as salary, long holidays, easy work, securing a job, and improving social position were much less significant. Still less significant as motives in the minds of students in training for teaching were incidental motives such as loan or grant to study, parent's wish, nothing better to do, and example of admired person. One phase of this study (24) was a survey of time of decision which indicated that the wish to become a teacher had been formed at an early age (in opinions of students) and that final decisions were made by most of the group at ages fourteen to seventeen, somewhat before completing the secondary school.

Those who are interested in the study of teacher recruiting will do well to examine the teacher replies to a questionnaire distributed by the Research Division of the National Education Association (16). In answer to a question as to whether the individual would become a teacher if she could go back to college days and start over, by far the largest percent of both urban and rural teachers said they certainly would or probably would. The largest percent also indicated that they enjoyed teaching or preferred it to other work. Some importance may be attached to the consistency of motives which teachers and students in training think influenced them to enter teaching. Of course since teachers' salaries on the whole have not been high, such selfish motives could not very well have operated. No evidence is reported which would indicate the effect which high salaries might have. In view of the motives listed, a controlled experimental program of giving youth at the junior and senior high-school level opportunities to work with younger children is worth considering as an attempt to build interest in teaching. Surveys of research on preservice selection have been provided by Eliassen and Martin (4), Blyler (2), Stroh, Jewett, and Butler (22) and Troyer and Pace (24). These cover much of the literature previous to 1943. Eliassen and Martin (4) compared research studies reported during the years 1940-1943 with those reported in 1937-1939 and for the ten-year period preceding 1943. They found a tendency to restrict admission to teacher training in 1933 and more emphasis in 1940-1943 on searching for capable candidates for teaching. There was also a tendency to retain students and help them overcome difficulties, thus enabling the candidates to qualify. Fewer candidates presented themselves for admission and thus

less selection was possible. In 1940-1943 studies (4) showed more emphasis on efforts to select candidates with good personality and good health, while in 1937-1939 scholarship and health were emphasized most often. It is apparent that a combination of selective technics are being used and efforts to determine the validity of these instruments are being attempted.

Hunsinger (12) analyzed college catalogs offering commercial teacher education and supplemented information by correspondence to determine selective practice in commercial teacher training institutions. She compared technics used in research bearing on validity. In her study of 271 institutions she found that three-fourths required some specific pattern of subjects; two-fifths, acceptable moral character; one-fourth, health certificates; and a fewer number made use of intelligence tests, evidence of professional interest, or personal interview. All required academic records of prospective students, 40 percent health certificates, 39 percent letters of recommendation, 9 percent personal interviews, and 6 percent speech or voice tests. After entrance, less than one-fourth of the institutions studied set up specific standards such as scholastic average (of C or above), personal qualities, health, use of English, records on personnel and achievement tests, professional knowledge, and interest and proficiency in typing and shorthand. More consideration was given to technics of selection by large institutions or by those located in large metropolitan centers than by other schools. Blyler (2) received replies from forty-one deans to a questionnaire dealing with selective practices. She found that 51.4 percent of universities and schools of music used some type of selective practice. In addition to other measures, 36.5 percent used the Seashore measures and 19.3 percent the Kwalwasser-Dykema tests of musical aptitude. Blyler (2) also analyzed teachers agency blanks to determine personality traits used in recommending candidates to employers. Hunsinger (12) presents data as to specific curriculum patterns required for college entrance by 200 teacher education institutions. Judged by percents given, tendencies to require a specific pattern seemed to be greatest in the nonstate universities and colleges, while state teachers colleges are less likely to require a specific pattern than state universities and colleges (12). Hancey (6) made a study of admission requirements in ninety-one state teachers colleges and found no agreement as to patterns of requirement and little tendency on the part of the majority to restrict entrance.

Butler (22) reports 138 questionnaire returns giving selective practices in state colleges and universities, liberal arts colleges, and teachers colleges. Fifteen of the sixty-two liberal arts colleges require a student to be in the upper half of the graduating class in scholarship, twenty-five require some qualifying examination, and seven admit any graduate. In state universities four of the forty-five reporting require students to be above the median rating scholastically, and twelve will admit any student. Of the state teachers colleges, 36 percent admit any graduate and eleven of the 168 reporting choose candidates for teacher training from the upper quartile scholastically of the high-school class. Many state institutions may be affected by legal

restrictions (23). Of the forty-three colleges and universities requiring speech tests, seventeen required failing students to take speech courses, twenty-three gave remedial work, and four gave clinic service. Of the sixty-eight state teachers colleges requiring a speech test, nineteen required a course for failing students and forty-three required remedial work. Butler's (22) study reveals present practice with reference to health provisions, entrance tests used, procedures for elimination of failing students, requirements for entrance to student teaching, and use made of student teaching records.

Troyer and Pace (24) gave personality and speech ratings as the most significant expansion in recent selective practice. They report practices of selection in New York and New Jersey state teachers colleges where considerable emphasis is placed on academic and personal qualifications. They also report the extensive program of selection carried on at Wayne University College of Education, where in addition to technics commonly used elsewhere use is made of cooperative tests of spelling and handwriting, special examinations of hearing and speech, ratings from interviews by principals or others, psychiatrists' ratings, social agency ratings and profile charts. Data are given showing percents admitted and rejected as a result of a combination of information secured about each student. Durlinger (3) reports additional evidence which supports the view that a combination of variables is superior to a single one in prediction of academic success. He also shows the predictive value of the tests of the Teachers College Personnel Association and concludes that no college preparatory course restrictions should be made by high-school officials, and that elementary achievement examinations are of about equal value with the high-school content examinations in predicting college grades and may be used for that purpose as well as to indicate background areas which need to be built up. He used regression equations to reveal varying degrees of predictive efficiency between the sexes, and he warns against using the same predictive agents for the whole student body. He presents zero order correlation coefficients and multiple correlations for results on college aptitude, elementary achievement and English tests, personal data, first semester grades, Bernreuter Personal Inventory, and Providence Music test. He found highest zero order correlations between intelligence and English and significant correlations between grade point averages and all measures except personality traits and neurotic tendency. By adding the achievement tests and English to intelligence tests multiple R with grade point averages was raised for both men and women. However, the achievement and English tests seemed to be sufficient for prediction. By means of regression equations he found the English test to be most significant and the achievement test to be next in value for grade prediction. Using the method of factor analysis he also found the elementary achievement test and English test to have enough factors in common with grade point averages to give them predictive value.

Romoda (18) reports an extensive investigation of selection practice

in the School of Education, Syracuse University. Information on health is secured from the University Health Center; speech, from School of Speech; personality, from faculty and deans of men and women; English, from Cooperative Test Service English Test; interest in contemporary affairs, from Cooperative Test Service Contemporary Affairs Test; scholarship ability from OCA Form 17 (or 21) Psychological Examination and scholarship in honor points per hour from the various colleges. He found students selected by the School of Education to be superior as a group to the general student body at the University, markedly superior to national norms in scholastic aptitude, English, contemporary affairs, and general culture. Men in education seemed to equal or excel the women in general scholarship and contemporary affairs but were somewhat weaker in English. Superior family backgrounds were indicated by parental occupations and parental education. His correlations between factors used for selection and honor point ratios are in agreement with those found in other studies.

Thomas (23) studied grade point averages for 232 graduates and found them to be most significant by fields of specialization. Seagoe (20, 21) furnishes two reports of a study of 125 student candidates for elementary teaching who were administered twenty-one tests and inventories at the freshman level. She found them to be at or above the seventy-fifth percentile on the manual for test used in the linguistic factor in intelligence, in general culture, in knowledge of contemporary affairs, in promise in professional courses, and in general teaching aptitude. She found them to be somewhat less selected (between the sixtieth and seventy-fifth percentile in the respective manuals) in quantitative factor of intelligence, manipulative skill, musical talent, achievement in social studies, freedom from egoistic attachments, general mental health, self-confidence, general adjustment, femininity of personality (largely women), interest in teaching, political, social and religious values, and leadership in classroom situations. When these students later became student teachers (20) the California Rating Scale for Practice Teaching (reports of validity not found) was used to secure a series of ratings by the training teachers and supervisors. She reports low correlations between subsequent ratings of the same students by the same training teacher. Altho the reliability of her measure of teaching success was low, she reports significant correlations with Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale Qualitative Estimate and with Bell Adjustment Inventory, adult form. She reports significant correlations between the Morris Trait Index L and success in teaching and also between grade point ratios at the end of two years of training (before the teaching assignment was begun) and teaching success. She concluded that certain standardized tests are more valid as criteria for prediction of teaching success than scholarship and subjective statements requested of students.

Henrikson (7) reports correlations between voice ratings and teaching ability as rated by supervisors, the student teaching mark and ratings by officials in the field and finds significant correlations between voice ratings and student teaching ability (434 cases) and keen voice ratings and teach-

ing ability in public schools. However the halo effect may operate to produce such relationships.

Guidance of Prospective Teachers

Evidence (1, 4, 5, 9, 13, 18, 22, 23, 26) seems to support the view that selection for teacher education should continue beyond the time of entrance to college and not be concluded until after a short period of teaching in the schools. A large number of institutions (4, 17, 24) admit students conditionally who with proper guidance may make excellent teachers. Evidence collected at the time of entrance or at various stages during training may be used to help diagnose the strength and weakness of the student (9, 29). Armstrong, Hollis, and Davis (1) present evidence of present practice in the organization of student personnel functions in teacher education institutions. Efforts are being made to coordinate personnel services and to make guidance a function to be performed by the faculty as a whole on a cooperative basis (1), the guidance specialist furnishing information and leadership. Orientation courses (24) are given to help students in planning for teaching and living.

Elimination of those unsuited to teaching may take place at any stage. Seagoe (19) gave a battery of tests to students in training including measures of emotional stability and used as a basis for teaching prognosis Morris Trait Index-L, Coxe-Orleans Teaching Prognosis Test, George Washington University Teaching Aptitude Test, and Stanford Educational Aptitudes. She reports no significant differences in predicted teaching abilities between those who remain in college and those who drop out. She concludes that the consistency of direction of certain differences suggest the hypothesis, that the bright maladjusted individual may leave teacher training more often than the well-adjusted individual at any level of intelligence or than the maladjusted individual of normal or relatively low ability. Her study may have been affected by war-time conditions for she finds that the causes for shifting away from teaching are outside the psychological pattern of the individual.

Retan (17) reports a study of 152 teachers with less than two years experience who were rated by their county superintendents as excellent, good, fair, and poor. These ratings agreed with the ratings by supervisors of student teaching while on the campus in approximately two-thirds of the cases. While the teachers had been on the campus as students they were administered the Pressey X-O test and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory and those who seemed to be unstable were given personal interviews to try to determine the background for maladjustment. He found 51.9 percent of his formerly unstable cases to be rated by school officials as good or excellent teachers and 24.7 percent of his stable cases to be rated as fair or poor teachers. He concluded that his measures of instability were not conclusive evidence of unfitness to teach and that a better procedure would be to help those while in college to overcome maladjustment.

Larsen and Marzolf (14) administered Floyd Miller's Scale of Measuring Attitude toward Teaching to 120 students who were beginning their training for teaching and compared the high attitude group (above 9.25) with the low attitude group (below 9.15). Range given was 1.3 to 10.7, mean 9.04, and median 9.08. They report no significant difference of means for high and low attitude groups with reference to hours of credit, grade point average, and differences of means significant at the 65 percent level on Teachers College Personnel Aptitude test decile scores.

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CHAPTER IV

The Preservice Preparation of Teachers

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THERE has been a marked decrease for this triennium (1943-46) in the number of published research reports on the preservice preparation of teachers compared with the preceding period. In all, seventy-three objective studies of the better sort were found. There were 138 similar studies listed for the preceding period. This decrease is an effect of the war on the availability of persons free to do such research. It certainly is not due to a decrease in nationwide interest in the problems of the education of teachers. Research during this last three-year period is comparable in quality to that of the earlier years. However, there is still a great need for the application of more rigid scientific methods and technics of experimentation, for a better design of projects, and for studies of greater scope.

The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education conducted a number of projects (4, 16, 17, 35, 69) related to the in-service education of teachers. Its activities stimulated a nationwide interest and cooperation on many problems of the education of teachers. The Commission's work emphasized the implementation of current theoretic and philosophic aspects of teacher education by encouraging new attacks on old and new problems. Its activities encouraged general methods of evaluation which were often subjective but always cooperative with participation by experts of good background and specialized interests. Its publications consisted largely of anecdotal reports and descriptions which have brought to the surface many problems that need further and more rigorous study. The Commission's work should result in the stimulation of much further research and critical thinking in the future.

A committee of the North Central Association (18) studied teacher education in the liberal arts colleges and the American Association of Teachers Colleges published three yearbooks (1, 26, 60) with important statistical data and other information.

Methods Used in the Investigations and Reports

As in the earlier review of the literature (56) a classification of the research methods and procedures used has been attempted. Where several procedures of investigation were used, they are all classified separately, instead of using only the major procedure. The distribution of methods used for the seventy-three studies reported here is as follows:

Method	*Frequency*
1. Objective data based on questionnaire or check list	24
2 Data from interviews, conferences, visitations, and reports	13
3. Opinion of experts or competent groups	9
4. Summary, review, or annotation of literature	9
5. Use of rating scales	9
6. Use of tests and examinations	8
7. Historical sources	6
8. Report by letter, diary, or general statement	6
9. Miscellaneous types of research methods (implied but not always fully explained)	6
10. Analysis of legal documents and records	3
11. Bulletin and catalog analysis	3
12. Experimentation	3
13. Student record analysis	2
14. Curriculum or course of study analysis	2
15. Subjective evaluation	2

There has been a relative increase over the preceding period (1940-1942) in the use of the questionnaire, rating scale, and historical sources and a decrease in the use of opinion experts and competent groups, analysis of legal records and documents, and summary, review, or annotation of the literature.

A further breakdown of the studies to indicate the levels of interest shows that ten were primarily concerned with elementary teaching, sixteen with secondary teaching, twenty-seven with the combined elementary and secondary levels, and seventeen with institutions of higher learning. There has been a marked increase in recent years in the study of higher education. Nineteen reports were concerned with teachers prepared by colleges and universities, and eighteen with those prepared in teachers colleges and normal schools.

Classification of Studies

Ten of the seventy-three studies were primarily bibliographical in nature, most of which were annotated. Many reports dealt with a miscellany of practices and policies of teacher-training departments in general, including administrative matters as well as instruction. The area which received the most extensive attention was the professional education of teachers.

There has been a definite trend in recent years to evaluate teacher-training institutions (18, 35, 38, 43, 47, 52, 53, 57, 58, 61, 62, 65, 69, 72). These studies reveal many shortcomings existent in higher education including instruction, curriculum, guidance, administration, etc. Concerned with observation, practice teaching, and internship were ten studies (4, 8, 9, 10, 15, 24, 27, 34, 37, 69). The history of aspects of teacher training was considered by three studies (25, 40, 46).

The needs for the improvement of the teacher-training curriculum received emphasis in a large number of the studies. Teacher traits such as would affect the objectives of teacher-training institutions were studied by ten writers (21, 33, 44, 47, 49, 51, 62, 63, 64, 71). The problems facing

student teachers and beginning teachers (27, 39, 64, 67) revealed the need for more practical and realistic training. The backgrounds of prospective teachers (55, 66) is another approach to curriculum construction that should be given more emphasis. The need for curriculum guidance (22, 69) was also pointed out. Problems for further research were obvious in most reports, but were definitely pointed out in three (2, 4, 52).

In the specialized subjectmatter areas dealing with teacher preparation there was a wide variety of studies: social studies (6, 42, 57, 61), mental hygiene (2, 21, 45, 67), guidance (4, 18, 21), vocational agriculture (7, 36, 58), science (48, 57, 61), English (12, 54), music (22, 66), physical education (39, 59), speech (33, 50), visual education (19, 72), industrial arts (73), library (1), mathematics (48), intercultural relationships (14), reading (20), commercial subjects (63), safety education (60), and home economics (71). Other classifications represented are: graduate work (11, 29, 35, 42), administration (26, 52, 65), Negro teacher education (13), extracurriculum activities (18), and education of special teachers (5).

To discuss the seventy-three studies in so many fields is beyond the possibility of space. However, the preceding breakdown and classification will aid the reader who may be interested in a particular aspect of preservice teacher training. The following conclusions which were selected from typical studies in major areas will give one a good idea of the trends in the findings of the studies of this triennium.

Professional Courses in Education—In a survey of 200 elementary school teachers it was found that only 31 percent of the teachers sampled read one educational periodical, and 58 percent occasionally browsed thru at least one (3). College teachers of reading, supervisors, and teachers agreed that topics dealing with remedial reading, the treatment of special reading cases, and reading administrative and supervisory problems were among the least adequately trained areas in teacher education (20). The real success of any project in child study depends chiefly upon the interest, skill, and tact of the local leadership (17). A course in educational guidance did not change to any great extent the attitudes of experienced teachers toward fifty behavior problems (21). Ten out of thirteen midwest teacher-training institutions provided no systematic in-service training to facilitate more frequent use of audio-visual instructional materials (19). In a comparison of attitudes of student teachers and regular teachers it was found that student teachers were less sensitive to classroom problems, expressed a greater satisfaction over participation in community activities, and showed greater dissatisfaction over interference by the principal (28).

Students and teachers enrolled in an integrative program in professional education showed a greater understanding of how to work with a class, less of how to work with an individual, greater understanding of the teacher's role with the individual and class groups, and less of the role of the community (23). Students in education gave educational psychology the highest rating and history of education the lowest rating in a course evaluation (38). Upper class students in education more frequently commented

upon the repetition of materials, while the beginning students objected to the amount of outside work (38). Students in education made the following suggestions for the improvement of their education: more observations, more practical application, more class discussion, and more discussion of children's problems (38). Students of guidance and teachers thought the following topics should be used in a mental hygiene course for teachers: correctional schools, delinquency, exhibitionism, feeblemindedness, fixation, frustration, introversion, juvenile court, lying, masturbation, mental disease, neuroses, play therapy, probation, psychoanalysis, rejection, stealing, syphilis, adolescent conflicts, control of worries, and personality problems (45). There was little evidence in this study that frequent use and casual presentation of terms in technical education brought about significant changes in the student's mastery of the technical terminology of the psychology and practice of teaching (43).

General Education of Teachers—General education of teachers is well cared for in the fields of the social sciences, science, and mathematics, less well in humanities and arts (26). The emphases that seem to pervade reports of studies are: the importance of continuity in teacher preparation and growth, the necessity for integration of experiences in teacher education, the study of the community, and the function of the teacher as an agent of community betterment (48). Little attention is given to the community approach as an aspect of conventional courses (53). Biology and sociology should be required of all students in education (57). A study to determine the musical background of 556 freshmen in six normal schools of New York showed that 42 percent of these students had received no music instruction in grades one to eight (66). There is a trend to measure the attainment of objectives by opinion analysis; however, opinion analysis must be supplanted by more objective evidence of behavior (69).

Higher Education and College Teaching—Under present circumstances members of thirteen teacher-training college faculties are not making adequate use of the audio-visual equipment already owned by the institutions (19). In one college motion picture materials were not easily available, and each instructor had to take the initiative to find out about films and arrange for their presentation (72). In an evaluation of verbal statements of possible outcomes of a four-year teacher education course the statements, "I shall have a comprehensive knowledge of my major field and the principles of teaching" and "I shall be able to help young people to develop their greatest usefulness," were given the highest ratings by students and faculty. The statements, "I shall have pleasantly disposed of four years of my life" and "I shall be on the road to fame," were given the lowest ratings (47). Teacher education in this country, especially since the middle of the past century, has revealed its imitative nature by frequently changing its fashions (40). At every stage much crucial research is needed, research which will not become merely another isolated atom of knowledge but which will verify or falsify a vital link in a comprehensive, unified theory of teacher education (68). If one were to act on best clues from

carefully interpreted research of the last fifteen years to date, he would upgrade the selection of teachers on scholarship and personality as far as possible; give them an improved, broad, functional, and somewhat pro-fessionalized general education; specialize them for teaching by broad fields rather than by subjects; increase the amount of well-supervised practice teaching or add a year of supervised internship; and lengthen the period of training. He would be much concerned about their attitudes, their social and cultural information, and civic-social duties (56).

Administrative Practices and Policies—A baccalaureate degree for all elementary school teachers, rural and urban, is required in 41.7 percent of the states. The movement in this direction seems to have started in the East and is working westward. Eleven eastern states have this regulation, as com-pared with four in the Middlewest, four in the Far West, and one in the South (9). In 1941, 48 percent of Negro teachers in fourteen southern states had more than two years of college training (13). Universities do not make adequate administrative provisions for close cooperation between the department or college of education and other departments of the uni-versity (65). The students' judgments of their own semester marks and final examination marks reveal correlations of .40 and .21, respectively, with actual marks (62). Educational program trends include: placing emphasis on the study of human growth and development, the acquisition of social understanding by teachers, the inclusion of arts in the education of teachers, training teachers in the technics of curriculum construction, and training teachers in evaluation (70). Organization of educational program trends include: coordination of subjectmatter departments and departments of education, provision of larger blocks of instruction, integration of theo-retical instruction and actual work with children, and a plan whereby the student is given greater responsibility for his own educational program (70).

In a study of state teachers colleges it was recommended that those charged with the administrative responsibility of curriculum making should institute measures at each college designed to prepare all faculty members for effective participation in curriculum making. Since no two college situations are likely to be identical in all aspects, such measures need not be alike at each institution in a state, but should be those which will result in the greatest growth at each institution and in a maximum institutional contribution to the overall state program (52).

Student Teaching—The advantages of a long period of practice teaching begun early in the curriculum are: helps teacher clear up teaching diffi-culties early, motivates all college work, and introduces teacher to respon-sibility with lessened strain (8). In twenty-six universities 75 percent of the student teachers receive their practical training in the public schools (10). In twenty-six universities one of the most urgent needs in practice teaching is supervision (10). Student teachers need more definite, dependable, and meaningful objective devices for judging the value and significance of outcomes than have yet been worked out for their use in supervised

student teaching (15). In connection with student teaching the well-organized workshop is an effective method of teacher training (34). In 50 percent of the teachers colleges of the United States, the opportunities to work with children before student teaching, in extraclass activities, and to see the homes are in need of improvement (26). Prospective kindergarten teachers who participated in the activities of a kindergarten group under observation made significantly higher scores on a kindergarten teacher situations test than another group of prospective teachers who just observed the kindergarten (24). It is possible for a student teacher to learn as much from observation as from participation, but the average of the group will not be so high (24). In conclusion, it may be said that supervision of practice teaching on the high-school level in the arts colleges of the United States is still in the formative stage. There are many serious deficiencies in the situation at present, but most college supervisors are cognizant of these difficulties and are taking steps to correct them (37). Observation of teaching is the best means of evaluation so far discovered (69).

Special Fields—During the last ten years (1933-1943) there has been a decrease in the number of methods courses taught in geography, but there was a considerable gain in the number of subjectmatter courses offered (6). More participating experience and responsibility for the trainee in agricultural education are needed (7). The most useful college subjects for music majors were methods (15), harmony (18), applied music (22), instrumental classes (12), and conducting (22). There are differences in the areas of subjectmatter required for certification of teachers of English (12). There is a need of clarifying objectives of industrial arts teacher education (73). Social studies teachers need a broad rather than a narrowly specialized major (42). Most of the provisions concerning the certification of teachers in those subjects which they are permitted to teach are merely quantitative in nature, expressed in semester hours of college work (54). Fifty-four percent of necessary abilities in swine production were possessed by beginning teachers in technical agriculture (58). During the period 1910 to 1940 the teacher education programs in physical education in the state teachers colleges actually changed very little as to the proportionate time allotted to teaching knowledge, general education, education, and free electives (59).

Teacher Problems—In a study to discover the problems of beginning teachers it was found that problems of discipline were reported with the greatest frequency by teachers, administrators, and supervisors (27). Beginning teachers sought help to a greater extent from fellow teachers than from administrators and supervisors (27). Most of the student teachers felt that teachers' salaries were not commensurate with the amount of training required. One-third said their enthusiasm had been dampened due to the type of teachers that would be their associates (64). The most common problems of beginning physical education teachers were: health education, adequate physical education plants, supervision of pupils not in gym suits, use of tests and measurements for improvement of instruction,

and organization and administration of after-school programs (39). Some-how educational leaders must find ways of improving the quality of the motivation of all persons concerned with the schools (49). The problems which teachers face are not intellectual problems to be clearly and sharply defined and solved by problem-solving methods as much as they are situa-tions to which teachers must adjust with decision and emotion as well as with intellect (67).

Graduate Work—In a survey of seventy graduate departments of educa-tion it was found that requirements in course work for the master's program with a thesis range from 18 to 32 semester hours; 25 schools specify 24 hours and 34 departments require between 25 and 30 hours in courses. Credit for the thesis ranges from 0 to 12 semester hours (29). The criteria employed by the North Central Association's Commission on Higher Insti-tutions in evaluating the competence of an institution to include graduate instruction in its program—(a) expenditure per student, (b) percent of doctor's degrees, (c) graduate study in months, (d) expenditure for books —constitute a fairly satisfactory working basis for estimating the compe-tence of the institution (11). In an analysis as of September 1940 of those who had received the Ed.D. and Ph.D. degrees in education during the decade commencing with 1930 it was found that half of the former group and 56 percent of the latter were engaged primarily in teaching. Adminis-tration was the primary but not exclusive duty of 44 percent of the Ed.D. recipients, and of 35 percent of the Ph.D. group. Research was the major concern of only 6 percent for either classification (35).

Teacher Traits—The correlation between supervising critics' ratings of teachers' voices and the rating of these same teachers' voices by public-school supervisors was .20±.03 (33). There is no relationship between student teachers' attitudes toward teaching and hours of credit earned, intelligence, achievement, or field of specialization (44). On completion of practice teaching in home economics the student teachers listed the following as desirable traits developed: better grooming, budgeting time, poise, friend-liness, self-confidence, better posture, better English, self-control, and im-proved vocabulary (71).

History of Teacher Training—The period since the close of World War I has probably seen more changes and more advances in the education of teachers than any other period in our history of twice its length (25). In the autumn of 1839, the first class of teachers' meetings now known as teachers' institutes was held at Hartford, Connecticut. Induced to make the experiment at his own expense, Henry Barnard undertook to form a class of such teachers of Hartford County as were disposed to come together on public notice. He placed them under the direction of Mr. Wright, principal of the Grammar School (46).

Guidance—Supervisors and administrators are not giving beginning teachers the necessary help and guidance in their problems (27).

Curriculum Content—In colleges and universities the facilities provided teachers to learn about our minority groups and about intercultural educa-

tion are (a) few in number, (b) poorly distributed, (c) limited in scope, and (d) the offerings are not required (14).

Conclusion

The studies for 1943-46 tend to corroborate the findings and conclusions of earlier studies. The improvement of higher education as related to teacher education is increasing in all types of institutions and points to the need of an improved and broader teacher-training curriculum in both the professional and subjectmatter areas, preparation for teaching in broad fields rather than by subject majors, longer periods of practice teaching with more adequate supervision, more direct and practical work with children, a wider consideration of teacher mental hygiene as related to the problems faced by teachers in the field, and improvement of instruction in teacher-training institutions, allowing also more student participation.

Probably the most important factors for better outcomes of teacher-preparing programs are: more careful selection of persons with native competence and good personal qualifications, a functional general education related to our times and conditions, emphasis upon laboratory school experience with children, and more training in professional aspects of teaching that may develop into art and skill.

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CHAPTER V

Local Selection, Placement, and Administrative Relations

CLIFFORD P. ARCHER

Published research in this area during the years 1943-45 is confined to questionnaire studies. Current literature indicates recognition of the importance of placing a graduate in a school situation where he would receive sympathetic and constructive guidance and in a position for which he is best adapted by personal and professional qualifications (8). However, there is little evidence to show that conditions have improved in this respect. Current trends indicate greater emphasis on follow-up studies and problems connected with induction of the teacher in the profession.

Teacher Placement

Archer (1) studied the organization of teacher placement facilities in the various colleges and universities. One hundred twenty-five institutions reported by questionnaire that twenty-four out of thirty-seven large institutions, thirty out of thirty-eight small liberal arts colleges, and all of the thirty-five teachers colleges operated the teacher placement function separately from placement in other occupations. Thirteen larger universities and colleges and eight smaller liberal arts colleges handled teacher placement as one function of a central placement office. He found that placement directors divide their time between placement service and teaching, student employment, student aid, housing, direction of summer session, heading department of education, vocational guidance and counseling, testing, and public relations. Other data were reported bearing on financial support, clerical assistance, and policies regarding continued service to the alumni after graduation. Larger institutions appear to follow up graduates with continued service in relocation of position to a greater extent than do smaller colleges. Kittle (10) suggests the value of studies growing out of the work of the placement office because of the close connection between the office and former graduates. It offers an avenue for evaluation of the teacher education program. Failure and success of graduates are reported to the office. Kilzer (9) furnished some helpful information on the writing of letters of application and conducting personal interviews, altho no objective evidence as to the efficacy of the practices is reported in any of the literature. Harrington (6) reports a statistical analysis of written recommendations of candidates for teaching, some of whom were successful and some unsuccesful in securing the positions for which they applied. The Johnson and Neyman technic was used as the basis of comparing recommendations of the successful candidates with similar evaluations of their

competitors. Harrington (6) reports that recommendations discriminate reliably among candidates and that there is a reliable association of good recommendations with success in placement.

Local Selection

Glover (5) reports technics used in the selection of teachers and gives particular emphasis to visiting the teacher at work. Leipold (11) reports a questionnaire study of sixty-five large city systems to determine which of certain duties are delegated to the principal and to what extent he exercises initiatory power concerning them. The initial selection and placement of teachers is primarily a function of the superintendent. Less than one-third of the principals participated in any way in selection, altho a conference is usually held with the superintendent when a teacher is assigned to the building.

Bagley (2) reports information relative to preference in appointment of teachers as revealed in a survey by the New York State Teachers Association. He finds some improvement since 1941 but the use of personal and political influence is not ruled out in all but six out of forty-six cities and other preferences operate to interfere with selection on a professional basis.

Evidence submitted by Stroh, Jewett and Butler (14) indicates that the bases of selection of the group of 1946 teachers studied were personal interview, specific preparation, apparent aptitude, high scholarship, influence with local authorities and competitive examination, with frequency in the order named. Most teachers think that the factors (14) which guided their employers in selecting them for positions were personality, scholarship, specific and adequate preparation, health, ability to work harmoniously with others, teaching ability, character, personal appearance, interest in the teaching profession, interest in community life and willingness to participate. Many other factors were listed. Specific preparation figured more prominently as a factor in the selection of supervisors and principals. Participation in community life seemed to be a more important factor in the minds of principals than for other members of the profession.

Administrative Relations and Teacher Induction

Jones (8) and others suggest the value of follow-up studies of graduates and the importance of assisting them in making adjustments in the new position. The Commission on Teacher Education (17) reports three follow-up studies of graduates, including a follow-up questionnaire study of those who had gone into teaching from Stanford University. Forty-eight percent of the group receiving master's and doctor's degrees were teaching. Data relative to needs of graduates were secured. Information desired by prospective employers regarding possible employees was also received. Responses from graduates (16) of a special five-year program at Teachers College, Columbia were secured by means of a questionnaire and data compiled

relative to success and to the value of certain phases of preservice education. In the several follow-up studies checklists and essay responses were used.

In addition to follow-up studies by mail, considerable emphasis has been placed on personal visits by the staff of the teacher education institution to graduates while teaching (17). Attention has been given by administrators and supervisors to the problem of teacher adjustment to the profession. Booth (3) gave suggestions of a series of technics designed to get the teacher properly initiated into a new school system by means of conferences to acquaint the teacher with the philosophy, curriculum, and regulations of the school, and with the children of the community. Such induction is also designed to discover strengths and weaknesses of the teacher and to stimulate her to exert her best professional effort. Clark (4) reports the use of a handbook of information for the beginning teacher. Spears (13) reports a study of 102 seniors who returned to the campus after ten weeks of teaching on a full-time assignment. Almost half of the group were disturbed about low salaries. One-third were concerned about the teaching personnel who would be their associates, their petty professional relationships and jealousies, narrow attitudes, distorted pupil-teacher relations, dictatorial methods, relations with the administration, and the practice of gossiping. Twenty-three of the group were alarmed at the rigidity of the high-school curriculum which seemed to them to be poorly adapted to the slow and above-average child. Stroud (15) also points out other problems of adjustment and the dangers of narrowness and routine. He gives suggestions which might be the basis for experimentation by administrators and supervisors in the best ways of stimulating continued growth beyond the college period.

Tate (16) studied the methods of inducting new secondary-school teachers into thirty-six Idaho schools with enrolments from 150 to 160 and with an average teacher turnover in 1941-42 of 44 percent. Twenty-seven superintendents and seventy-one teachers returned questionnaires. Adjustment to pupils was ranked as the greatest problem by 81 percent of the teachers and by 76 percent of the superintendents. Teachers (64 percent) considered their second most difficult adjustment to be that of getting a working understanding of the philosophy and objectives of the school, and 72 percent of administrators agreed. Homeroom activities and club sponsorships were considered a major problem by 58 percent of the teachers and 80 percent of the superintendents. Other major problems of adjustment for teachers were those of administrative routine (attendance, reports, special duties), instructional methods and objectives in particular subjects, adjustment to the community, adjustment to other teachers, and use of textbooks and other basic instructional material, such as libraries, laboratories, and community resources. The latter was listed by 50 percent of the teachers and 88 percent of the administrators as one of the greatest difficulties in adjustment. Forty-seven percent of the teachers studied had no experience and gave the following adjustment problems (in order of frequency of mention) : discipline, teaching outside of field of preparation,

understanding philosophy and objectives of the school, adjustment to other teachers, housing and living conditions, finding recreation, getting conferences with the superintendent, and finding time to take part in civic affairs. Teachers and superintendents checked a list of induction practices which seemed to be most helpful. Eighteen methods of induction practiced were checked by administrators and their teachers (whose reports were sent in individually). The four most important in the opinions of the teachers were (a) individual conferences with the superintendent prior to the beginning of the school term, (b) individual conferences following classroom visits, (c) general teachers meeting early in the year devoted to discussion of administrative organization, and routine, (d) consulting an older established teacher regarding problems, and (e) teachers guides, manuals and courses of study covering instructional practices and curriculum routine. Teachers responded to the survey by checking items about which they would like information before election, at the time of election, at the beginning of school and during the early part of the year. Sixty-five percent of the teachers and 35 percent of superintendents thought the teaching assignment (exact subjects) should be given before election, and 35 percent of teachers and 65 percent of administrators thought such information should be given at the time of election. Eighty-five percent of the teachers wanted to know at the time of election what textbooks and workbooks would be used, while the majority of superintendents (56 percent) thought the beginning of school was soon enough. Teachers wanted to know about housing and living conditions either before or at the time of election. Six other items were reported by Tate (16) as information desired. Based on interviews and articles written by teachers, Hunnicutt (7) reports valuable suggestions for the principal which would help him in his administrative relations with his teachers. Meredith (12) reports administrative practices in the use of democratic methods and the clear definition of the responsibility of the teacher.

More research is needed in best methods of local selection of teachers and in improvement of personnel records of teacher placement offices in order to give prospective employers a complete picture of the personal and professional qualifications of the candidate. Further studies are needed in the area of teacher adaptation to local school communities and the best methods to use in helping the young teacher to get a fair start in the profession. Further studies of the function of a teacher placement office as a means of validating the teacher education program would also be helpful.

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CHAPTER VI

Local Residents and Married Women as Teachers

DENNIS H. COOKE, JESSE F. CARDWELL, and HARRIS J. DARK

VERY LITTLE WORK of a scientific nature has been reported on the problems of married women and local residents as teachers since 1943, when Cooke, Knox and Libby (6) reviewed thirty-nine studies in this area. Wartime conditions doubtless diverted attention to other matters. Forty-two reports are here reviewed.

Local Residents

One of the proposals for meeting the teacher shortage in Florida reported by Mead (24) was that local residents who had taught in other states but were now living in Florida be investigated by superintendents. According to Kriner (20) the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction recommended an emergency program which included the employment of teachers on the basis of their training, ability, and certification, rather than place of residence.

Harris (15) stated that an extraneous matter like place of residence should be considered in selecting teachers only when it had a direct bearing upon the contribution the applicant might be expected to make in a specific position. It was the opinion of Mead (25) that in selecting teachers all restrictions placed on them as to residence in the home community should be removed in order to increase the supply of teachers and improve the quality of classroom work. As one of the benefits growing out of the war emergency Frazier (11) mentioned the very frequent breaking down of discrimination against applicants because of their religion, place of residence, and marriage.

Married Women and Proposals for Meeting
Teacher Shortages

The Commissioner of Education of Vermont as reported in Bogart (3) and also *School and Society* (35) recommended that, in order to help meet the teacher shortage, school districts abandon all rules against the employment of married women. The wives of men in the armed services were mentioned as a source of teacher supply in a report by Mead (24). One of Wisconsin's teachers college (41) recommended the employment of married women with teaching experience, and married women who were educated and trained but without experience. In order to meet the current shortage the Pennsylvania State Department of Education (20) encouraged the employment of teachers on the basis of their qualifications without regard to marital status.

Cox (7) proposed calling married women back into service for the following reasons: (a) they are needed to meet the emergency; (b) the younger mothers have not been out of school long enough to become dated in the approach to their work; (c) in their training they had the advantages of a full-time teachers' course rather than the accelerated one; (d) because of their contact with children they are likely to have a rich understanding of and a realistic approach to the problems at hand; (e) since retirement they may have had more time for broader reading and cultural enrichment. To meet the problem of caring for the children in the home, she proposed that two mothers work at the same job, one in the morning and one in the afternoon, each caring for the children of both while the other was on duty.

Elder (10) reported that some of our most outstanding teachers have been married women and that the school will need large numbers of these teachers to maintain their staffs in the years ahead. Maxam (23) stated that the State Board of Education in Indiana had made a survey to determine the number of married women teachers. Kelly (18) reported that South Carolina was attempting a similar survey.

A number of reports showed that married women have been called into teaching service to meet the shortage. Cummins (8) reported that this plan was being used in Fairfield County, Ohio, and that a survey was being made to determine the number of such teachers still available. *School and Society* (35) and Woellner (42) reported that both Maine and Kentucky were calling back into service married women who could meet even the minimum emergency requirements set up by the state including those who once held certificates but had allowed them to lapse. In 1943, several states were certifying married women who could meet minimum requirements and calling back into service others who were formerly certificated but not eligible to teach (41).

According to a report by Bowers (4), 5524, or 11 percent, of Ohio's teachers were married women in 1942-43, compared with 3894 during the previous year. There were 8285 married women teachers in the state of Ohio in the fall of 1943 (32). This was about 22 percent of the total number of teachers employed. On the basis of reports reaching the U. S. Office of Education in large numbers each week, removing the discriminations against married women teachers was helping to relieve the shortage in some communities, but in others such teachers with experience were difficult to find. In some communities the married women teachers were resigning because their husbands were receiving increased incomes (40).

In a study based on information submitted by more than 1400 superintendents and cooperating members of their staffs the Research Division of the National Education Association (30) found that there were 20 percent more married women teaching in December 1942 than in December 1941. The increases varied inversely with the size of the cities.

According to Frazier's (11) report of a nationwide study made by the United States Office of Education in 1944, more than half the superintendents had employed married women to meet the teacher shortage.

Of 1389 school systems reporting 47 percent reinstated married women in 1942-43 and 57 percent in 1943-44 (38). Most of the 154,900 teachers leaving the profession from October 1942 to October 1943 were replaced by former teachers who had left their positions to be married or for other reasons (39). Frazier (12) found that 20 percent of the women who left their teaching positions between the school years 1941-42 and 1942-43 did so because of marriage. Many of these women, most of whom were welcome in other vocations, were willing to continue teaching but were not permitted to do so. Frazier thought this was "something of a commentary upon local management of the situation."

Green (14) was encouraged because the closing of so many rural schools had been prevented by the voluntary return of married women teachers in the local communities. The Education Section of British Information Services (5) announced that Great Britain had suspended the regulation requiring women teachers to resign when they married.

Unique Contribution of Married Women Teachers

Alexander and Neterer (1) suggested that because of their intimate contacts with parents, with the responsibilities of parenthood, and with children both in the home and the school, married women teachers may bring unique contributions to the school's program of instruction and community relationships.

Butler (37) acknowledged that it took World War II to bring England to an understanding of the very special contributions that married women teachers may make to the schools. Green (14) and Diehl (9) paid high tribute to the married women teachers who returned to the school room during the war period.

Court Decisions and Legal Trends

The bars and regulations against married women teachers are of different kinds. Shallcross (36) listed the most frequent regulations as: (a) the refusal to hire the married woman; (b) dismissal of the woman teacher upon marriage; (c) delay in granting promotion, or actual demotion because of marriage; and (d) either permanent or temporary dismissal when pregnant. Hodgdon (17) indicated that the number of court rulings regarding the rights and responsibilities of teachers under state statutes providing tenure continues to grow.

Recent cases include a decision rendered in Louisiana (16) in favor of a married woman teacher who was refused a leave of absence because of pregnancy. The court held that schoolboards may not make rules and regulations as "they deem proper for the regulations of schools" when such rules and regulations are inconsistent with the state tenure laws. Neither can a Louisiana schoolboard (26) reorganize a school in such a way as to exclude a tenure teacher while on maternity leave, since this would be an indirect way of removing her for a reason not specified by law.

In Ohio (26) a schoolboard cannot refuse a continuing contract on the grounds of marriage even when it is a violation of a board rule. In Pennsylvania (28) the court held that marriage does not bear any direct relation to a teacher's fitness or capacity to do her work properly and may not be used as grounds for the dismissal of a tenure teacher. In Tennessee (33) the general statute specifying causes for dismissal does not include marriage, and so the court has ruled that marriage is not a cause for the removal of a tenure teacher.

Rosenfield (34) said that it is reasonable for schoolboards to make regulations forbidding the employment of married women who are not under tenure, provided the rule is applied only to cases subsequent to the ruling. But a rule forbidding employment of married women teachers cannot validly affect the teacher who is under tenure.

Altho marriage was not recognized as a cause for dismissal in Pennsylvania, the court ruled that in case a woman professional employee (27, 34) is unable to fulfil her duties because of pregnancy, the schoolboard is justified in dismissing her on the grounds of incompetency, which includes physical inability. An Ohio court, in ruling that marriage is not grounds for the dismissal of a teacher, refused to pass upon the propriety of such a rule as affecting marriages entered into subsequent to the signing of a teaching contract (26, 34).

Altho an Indiana court previously held that marriage is a "good and sufficient cause" for dismissal, a recent case in that state favored a married woman teacher, on the grounds that she had not been afforded proper safeguards guaranteed her by the tenure act (34). Massachusetts (33) courts have held that the tenure law does not exclude marriage as a cause for dismissal. In Illinois (28) a court refused to review the case of a married woman teacher's dismissal on the grounds that the dismissal was a discretionary matter.

Married Women Teachers After the War

England (37) proposed the removal of the ban on married women teachers. Along with plans to reduce class size and to provide better opportunities, provision is being made to make use of married women teachers. School officials in England expect the married woman teacher to fit into a part-time program, thus allowing time for the teacher's own family.

The issue is not so clear in the United States. The fact that eleven of thirteen large American city school systems do not discriminate in any way against married women cannot be interpreted as evidence that the ban is lifting, for a more inclusive study (31) reports that married women are entirely ineligible for appointments in 58 percent of the cities and are at a disadvantage in 95 percent of 1782 school systems studied.

There is still sentiment against married women working, as expressed in Good's (13) review of Florence Hale's statement that much publicity should be directed toward discouraging the woman with children under

fifteen years of age from going into employment, because of the psychological need of her presence and time in the home. Yet, the platform of the National Education Association in 1944 included the following statement (29) : "The selection and promotion of teachers should be on a professional basis. . . . Teachers should not be discriminated against because of race, color, belief, residence, or economic, or marital status."

A National Education Association research report (31) shows that teacher opinion on this subject is not uniform. In cities where there is a non-discrimination policy, 61 percent of the single women, 87 percent of the married women, and 67 percent of the men teachers favored the policy as practiced. Only a small fraction of the teachers in this group who preferred some other policy, subscribed to a policy of complete discrimination against the employment of married women as teachers. From the group of city school systems that deny employment to married women and dismiss women teachers who marry, 29 percent of the single women and 38 percent of the men favored a policy of complete discrimination toward married women. Only 27 percent of the single women and 31 percent of the men teachers in this group favored unrestricted employment opportunities for married women. Among the rural teachers reporting opinions, 41 percent of both sexes favored full employment opportunities for married women teachers, and only 8 percent of the women and 13 percent of the men favored a policy of complete denial of employment opportunities to married women teachers.

Elder (10) and Harris (15) declared that the marriage ban must be cast aside in order to insure a supply of teachers in the postwar period. MacLeod (22) stated that married women may well find themselves faced by a condition that urges their remaining in the schools. Leggett (21) indicated that the question of the married woman teacher will become a prominent one as soon as war conditions are over. He insisted that the married woman should have a place in the schools; that marriage does not render the woman unfit to teach, but that it should so enrich her life as to make her even a better teacher. Shallcross (36) presented arguments favoring the employment of married women; but added that the real question to face may not be, "Should married women work?" It may be, "Under what conditions should they work?"

Kramer (19) presented a short study to show that the attitude of superintendents toward the employment of married women teachers has not changed. Of the twenty-one schools selected for the study, only one employed married women before 1941, but in 1944 all but four employed them. He said that the opinions of the administrators did not change. In 1941 eight were favorable toward the employment of married women; thirteen were not. In 1944 the figure stood the same. Among the arguments presented by superintendents were: (a) married women teachers normally cause unemployment among unmarried women, which the public will not tolerate; (b) the married woman cannot be dealt with singly, for the school-board and superintendent must deal with the husband too: (c) local politics

are too much involved in their employment; (d) she has little or no time
for outside activities; and (e) because she teaches for pin money, she
underbids the professional teacher.

These statements serve to emphasize Rosenfield's statement (34) that
there is not sufficient evidence to establish a decision concerning the status
of the married woman teacher after the war. Schoolboards may revert to
their former practices concerning the marriage clause in the teacher's
contract, or the time may be at hand, as suggested by MacLeod (22),
when the married woman teacher will be urged to teach. She indicated
that the economic pattern may be on the verge of change; that the married
woman worker may become a preferred status; and if so, the school may
have to provide what the home will lack. In that case the married woman
teacher, who is also a mother experienced in homemaking, will fill a
definite need.

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CHAPTER VII

In-Service Teacher Education

MAURICE E. TROYER, JAMES E. ALLEN, JR., and WILLIAM E. YOUNG

Four reviews of the history of teacher education, Evenden (39), Hill (52), Knight (59), and Lins (61) will be exceedingly helpful to those who wish to gain perspective on problems of in-service teacher education. Lins, for example, found teachers interested in the following topics for discussion in 1862: (a) Can teaching be reduced to a science? (b) Does the pecuniary prosperity of a nation depend upon its intelligence? (c) What are the prominent causes of failure in teaching? (d) Should prizes and awards be made for superior scholarship? (e) By what plan can a teacher best succeed in keeping the students employed? (f) What methods of instruction will best lead students to original investigation? (g) What disposition should a teacher make of his school time after school hours? (h) How can the pupils be taught good manners? and (i) Should a military spirit be encouraged among pupils of our common schools?

A study of the literature on in-service teacher education of the past three years indicates that the immediate concerns of teachers today are fundamentally the same as eighty years ago. However, as teachers of today study their problems they find them rooted in deeper and more basic issues of education and of society. The major developments in in-service teacher education in the past three years have been toward more effective organization of programs for the study of these basic issues. Accordingly, there has been some shift in the topics covered since the review reported in 1943. Within the limits of space allowed, it was possible to report less than one-third of the material in the literature. Even so, it was necessary to take liberties with the concept of research in deciding to include some of the references. Such liberties seem justified, however, during a period when much significant exploratory work is being done in an area as important as the in-service improvement of teachers.

General Principles and Procedures

Bigelow (17), Haskew (48), and Troyer (104) summarized the work of the Commission on Teacher Education bearing on the purposes, nature, organization, staffing, and evaluation of field, college, regional, and state-wide workshops and conferences. Emphasis was placed on democratic processes, careful planning, necessity for programs of action, the identification of problems teachers believe important, pooling of local and college resources, adequate financing, and provision for staff time. From the survey of 247 schools in the North Central Association, Jessup and Lecture (55) concluded that teacher-sharing in the planning of in-service education is very important. They listed technics for education of teachers in service.

Corey (29) presented an excellent statement of the principles of teacher development based on concepts of adolescent growth. He then proceeded to point out the implications for administrator-teacher relationships. While *Leadership at Work* (73) is directed mainly at the nature of leadership and school organization, it is permeated with stimulating illustrative material significant for teacher education. Brown (20), Douglass and Mills (36), Juckett (56), Murray (71) and Anderson (4), thru their several approaches, indicated current and postwar needs for continuous in-service teacher education and suggested the organization, procedures, and values of such programs. Sims (95) reported two types of difficulties recognized by the staff of a workshop, one relating to the choices teachers made of problems to study, the other to methods teachers used in their study.

War Emergency Programs

Employment during the war of great numbers of inadequately prepared teachers prompted many states and communities to undertake large-scale emergency programs of in-service teacher education. *Education for Victory* served as a clearing house for information relative to many of these programs. The *Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching* (72) described emergency in-service programs in several states. Anderson (4) and Chisholm (24) explained how the state of Washington organized its total resources to meet the war-time needs of teachers. Andrews (7) described a twelve-hour basic course in teaching fundamentals patterned after instructional procedures developed in the Army Training Program. This course was taught to administrators who in turn taught it to their emergency teachers. Plans for the training of emergency nursery school teachers in Rochester, New York, from selection to promotion as supervisors was described by Beach and Kumpf (15).

Hunt (53) stressed participation of emergency teachers in curriculum revision and development along with regular teachers as one of the best ways of helping those inadequately prepared. Christensen (25) described the development of four county workshops within a radius of seventy miles of Moorhead State Teachers College in Minnesota to serve teachers with emergency certificates who could not attend professional schools. Seay and Taylor (89) described similar workshops in Kentucky that focused on schools serving community needs such as health, sanitation, crop rotation, and tree culture. Seay (86) in a later article set forth basic principles and procedures for workshops for the inadequately prepared teachers. A manual for capable high-school graduates pressed immediately into teaching was prepared by Sorenson (98) with the help of other faculty members.

The Role of Colleges and Universities
in In-service Training

Spurred on by war-time needs, colleges and universities played a stronger role in the growth of teachers in service. Increasingly they provided per-

sonnel and material resources in local school systems seeking help in studying their educational problems. Rogers (85) stressed the value of studies of school systems by staffs of schools of education as material for in-service training programs. The purposes, technics, and advantages to teachers and administrators of utilizing university resources in the study of local school problems were explained by Ganders and Price (44). Darlington (32) described the program developed at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College to make its staff and resources available to teachers working on school and community problems. Parker (77) reported the activities of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in providing many types of in-service training programs for schools in the southern states.

Davis (33) described an interesting experiment in the form of a learning conference sponsored by the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado, in which university resources were combined with local resources for mutual benefit. He concluded that the most significant contribution of the conference was the opportunity that it afforded for blending theoretical and research data with teaching experience. Four methods used by a state-supported institution to facilitate practical in-service teacher training during the war period were reported by Dawson (34). They included: (a) local workshops conducted by members of the college faculties; (b) visits by groups of teachers in service to the campus demonstration schools; (c) the granting of credit approved by the state board of education for local workshops; (d) the establishment of a statewide committee on postwar planning of curriculum.

Various aspects of an in-service workshop conducted by the Euclid Schools of Cleveland in cooperation with the Ohio State University College of Education were described by Fordyce (42), Boric (18), Yauck (110), and Raths (81) (82). This program dealt with problems of evaluation of interests, social competence and acceptance, social adjustment, and questionnaires to parents concerning the background and emotional makeup of children. Hildreth (51) reported fourteen conclusions from teachers' appraisal of a summer workshop in which they had an opportunity to observe classroom teaching, discuss observations, and work in small groups on problems of instruction. Olsen (76) in a national survey found that approximately one-third of all fully accredited teacher institutions in America make available to teachers some type of experience with the philosophies, procedures, and problems of community-centered education.

City, Town, and Rural Organization

The New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education (75) and the Association of Assistant Superintendents in the city of New York (14) reported on an extensive year-around in-service training program for New York City teachers. The report by the former group (75) revealed the progress that hundreds of teachers can make over a two weeks' period

in clarifying objectives, developing units of instruction, accumulating
various materials, and developing appraisal procedures. The Association
of Assistant Superintendents (14) described how a large city meets the
problems of teacher growth and presented a list of diversified activities
for the in-service training of teachers and administrators. Hyams and
Klock (54) reported how a group of New York City teachers studied to
develop their resourcefulness as instructors in radio production classes.

An in-service training program for teachers in thirty-one junior high
schools in Los Angeles was reviewed by Rogers (84). Several ways in
which the junior high-school teachers and principals keep abreast of new
educational practices were explained. Cushman and Taulane (30) gave
an account of a citywide teacher improvement program in Philadelphia and
concluded that teacher improvement, supervision, and the development of
curriculum materials are inseparable as to time, place, and person; in-
service education of teachers should be the outgrowth of classroom work
in the school and community in which each individual is located; mature
and secure persons are those who consciously and openly seek personal
growth in service.

Two annual, after-school, four-day workshops in Atlanta entirely
planned by teachers are reported by Haskew and Smith (49). One empha-
sized greater unity between levels of the school system, the other empha-
sized better health programs. Three hundred twenty-five of the 991 teachers
in the city were enrolled; thirty staff members from outside the system
were brought in. Outcomes included (a) the establishment of twelve study
committees to work on problems and make reports as basis for the fol-
lowing year's work conference, (b) the arrangement with local colleges for
courses in health education, (c) the request that various schools and
individuals tackle certain problems experimentally.

Goslin (46) described the five-year progress and accomplishments of
an in-service program in Webster Groves, Missouri. The program began
with a questionnaire circulated among teachers which sought the interests
and problems of the teachers and their reactions to educational trends.
This was followed by the appointment of two faculty committees: a rep-
resentative committee and a research committee. These committees made
and evaluated studies, held discussion meetings, issued bulletins, and stim-
ulated in-service activities. The author concluded that the program had
developed in teachers (a) a better understanding of problems; (b) a
broader and surer base for educational philosophy; (c) keener interests
and insights and increased ability to think critically; and (d) greater
ability to contribute constructively to group discussions. Anderson and
Long (5) reported a summer workshop conducted by the schools of
Portland, Oregon, in cooperation with the State System of Higher Education
involving demonstration classes followed by discussion and work on spe-
cial problems.

Theissen (103) reported how the administration and staff of the Mil-
waukee school system took advantage of an emergency delay of three

weeks in the opening of school to provide in-service training of teachers. Cartwright (23) described an interesting two-day program for teachers in the Elgin, Illinois, High School held prior to the opening of school in which parents, students, and teachers participated in panel discussions of school problems led by nationally known consultants.

A profitable program designed to improve the quality of substitute teaching in Belmont, Massachusetts, is reported by Shibles (92). Teachers on the substitute list attended a series of thirteen meetings organized as workshops which dealt with current activities in the school, aims and objectives of the school program, new methods and materials, and other aspects of the school system. This program resulted in an increased number of competent substitutes and in more efficient and economical substitute teaching.

Herrick (50) gave an account of three rural workshops for teachers in Tennessee, Illinois, and Minnesota. The different needs out of which these programs arose and the various types of sponsorship, organization, and resources involved were described. Angell (9) reported ten outcomes of a field workshop in which 95 percent of the teachers of a central rural school met for two hours on alternate weeks thruout a two-year period with regular consultant services from a nearby professional school. Martin, Rice, and Ward (64) explained how the conventional type of teachers institute was turned into carefully planned work conferences in which teachers received help individually or in small groups on their problems.

County, Regional, and State Programs

The First Miami Workshop Report (70) and the second by Klein (58) showed the results of cooperative effort to outline a program of public education in Ohio. In addition to public school and college representation many other organizations participated: the Ohio Chamber of Commerce, Congress of Industrial Organizations, American Federation of Labor, Association for Childhood Education, the Ohio State Grange, Ohio Farm Bureau Federation, American Association of University Women, League of Women Voters, Ohio Congress of Parent Teachers, Society for the Advancement of Colored People, and the Urban League. Eckelberry (37) reported a specific outcome of the Miami workshop: the joint sponsorship of a conservation laboratory for secondary school teachers by the Ohio State University Colleges of Agriculture and Education and the State Division of Conservation and Natural Resources. Beecher (16) gave an account of a workshop on regional resources that brought together representatives of labor, business, and other organizations for the solution of common educational and community problems.

Snavely (97) reported the joint efforts of colleges, schools, and state departments in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to improve classroom procedures, administrative practices, teacher-pupil-parent relationships, community life, and teacher education. The Texas

Study of Secondary Education (74) provided channels for the interchange of ideas and opportunities for teachers and administrators to work together on programs that serve the needs of youth in their community. The method whereby three counties in West Virginia cooperated with Morris Harvey College as part of a statewide plan was described by McGarey (67). Each county formed an in-service training council.

Seay and Meece (87) (88) reported on both the planning of a statewide program of education in Kentucky and on the Sloan Foundation experiment. The statewide program was a cooperative venture by the Kentucky Education Association, state department of education, and representatives of colleges, public schools, and civic agencies. The report described developments in fourteen schools and colleges. The Sloan Foundation Study is attempting, thru the University of Kentucky Bureau of School Service, to improve community living by focusing on three basic economic necessities: food, clothing, and housing. Summer workshops on campuses and in local school settings have been used to produce curriculum materials of local and regional significance. This report also revealed methods of measuring outcomes of the program. Other comprehensive reports of Sloan Foundation Studies were made by Lowery (63) and Koeninger (60).

Roberts (83) reported a workshop for county supervisors on the economic characteristics of the area, health conditions in the counties, and school services available, leading up to plans for the work of the schools during the following year. The California State Department of Education (22) prepared a bibliography to help meet needs of teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

In-Service Training for School Administrators and College Teachers

An important development which provides in-service education for administrators, as well as teachers, board members, and other laymen, was described in a report (69) of the work of the Metropolitan School Study Council in which representatives of sixty-seven metropolitan New York school districts studied educational problems of common interest and practical concern. Parker (79) reported on the School for Executives held at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia, sponsored by the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the Commission on Teacher Education. More than a hundred administrators from teachers colleges and other institutions of higher education studied various problems relating to the improvement of teacher training.

Shannon (90) in a survey of seventy-one faculty members of the Indiana State Teachers College found that 75 percent favored a supervisory program for improving teachers in service. Those who opposed supervision were said not to understand what well-conceived supervision is or what it aims to accomplish. Even those who favored an in-service program had no clear idea of how it functions. The suspected resentment by college faculties

to supervision of instructors was said to be to a large degree fictitious and, where real, to be based on misconceptions. The complacency of junior colleges with respect to in-service training was deplored by Simons (94). He calls for deans of junior colleges to give more emphasis to in-service training, and to recognize their full responsibility for the improvement of junior college teaching. The fifth report (99) of the Committee on Work Conferences of the Southern Association describes the work of committees on curriculum studies, planning postwar education, and teacher education.

Intercultural and Sociological Foci

Taba (102) pointed out the usefulness of workshops in reducing the lag between the development of an idea and the time when it gets into the textbooks. She further appraised the workshop method with respect to five tasks in intercultural education. According to Mead (68) common residence and other types of close interpersonal relationship between workshop sessions are necessary to bring about the emotional climate that should prevail among individuals as they discuss intergroup conflicts. The chief problem areas faced in workshops on intergroup conflicts, according to Giles (45) are: (a) administrative procedures, (b) curriculum and method, (c) teacher education, and (d) school-community relationship. This discussion should prove helpful to those planning similar workshops. Cole (26) reported the purposes, program, procedures, and appraisal of a workshop on intercultural education for representatives of the public schools of Los Angeles county and city, Council of Social Agencies, Los Angeles Youth Project, the Housing Authority, and other social agencies, citizens, and representatives of university faculties. A ten-point program for intercultural education in the New York City schools was the focus for twelve groups of teachers in a workshop reported by Bristow (19). Andrus (8) described a special workshop to adapt the school program to the needs of Spanish-speaking children of Los Angeles county and city schools.

A workshop that included both planning and implementation is described by Hall and Thomas (47). Thirty-four teachers and staff members of a George Peabody College workshop moved to Dog Creek to work with twenty-nine children and eight mothers on the improvement of a one-room school, its programs, and the community. A contrasting type was described by Mayfarth (65) in her report on the unique contributions of a retreat to the quiet and beauty of the mountains for relaxed consideration of educational problems, recreation, and sharing of experiences. Still another type of workshop was reported by Dallas (31) in which a group of county schools cooperated with Fort Valley State College in organizing a program in which a group of teachers worked for pay during the summer and in the process surveyed land production and collected data for the writing of curriculum material. The value of off-campus experience for both teachers and the college staff was emphasized by McAllister (66). The workshop report of Miner Teachers College (38) revealed how teachers, parents, and

representatives of social agencies met regularly to study adolescent prob-
lems of school and community.

Several teacher education programs combined child study and sociologi-
cal and intercultural problems. Wrightstone, Parke, and Bressler (109)
described the work of a group of teachers who made intensive case studies
gathering evidence from numerous sources and with a variety of technics.
In a workshop reported by Smitter (96) child study by the teachers brought
parent visitation and eventually parent-teacher cooperation in the study of
children and the program of the school. A workshop on home and family
life was reported by Andrews (6) emphasizing some of the most fruitful
methods of bringing about parent-teacher cooperation. Fenton and Davis
(41) gave an account of an in-service program to improve the mental
hygiene of the classroom and playground.

Special Studies

Antell (10) (11) (12) studied teachers' interests, understandings,
backgrounds, and present status for the purpose of developing guiding
principles for their improvement in service. Twenty-three guiding prin-
ciples were enunciated from the inventory of teachers' interests (11);
seven were derived from a study of the backgrounds and present status of
teachers (12); twelve more were developed from an inventory of teachers'
understandings of child growth and their acceptance or rejection of educa-
tional principles (10).

Weber (108) reported the reactions of teachers toward in-service edu-
cation in two groups of selected schools using different types of in-service
technics. One group used technics characterized as distinctly cooperative;
the other used technics characterized as principal-centered, traditional,
supervisory, and individualistic. Reactions were obtained on questionnaires
which asked teachers to evaluate the in-service training in their schools
according to a list of criteria for appraising in-service programs. Summar-
ized responses to the criteria favored technics in the group of schools
characterized as using cooperative practices. The author concluded that the
most promising technics are those which give teachers a large share in
shaping policy, in planning, and in conducting faculty meetings, and which
provide situations in which teachers, pupils, parents, and board members
work together in attacking ·problems arising in the school. Von Eschen
(106) reported an experimental study of the effectiveness of supervision on
measurable changes in pupils with respect to certain stated objectives. He
found that supervision was most effective in those areas in which the
supervisory program was most concentrated. He concluded that in order to
get maximum results supervision should be centered upon a particular
area in which improvement is desired.

Parker (78) reported the evaluation of the "Southern Study" by the Com-
mission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association.
He listed seven evidences of changes in opportunities for teacher growth

and twelve evidences of teacher growth. Symonds (100) (101) reported on three studies of teacher problems and how teachers solve them. Altho these studies would be referred to more appropriately under personnel or psychiatric services to teachers, they reveal the need for a type of in-service teacher education which would improve the emotional climate of the classroom and the effectiveness of the learning situation for children. Similarly, definite implications for the improvement of in-service training programs were pointed out by Di Michael (35) and Alilunas (1) in their studies of the mental hygiene of teachers.

Special Technics and Devices

Frissell (43) reported an in-service course in typing for teachers in Hartford, Connecticut. Teachers practiced before and after regular school hours for a four-week period. Sherman (91) gave an account of methods of filming a unit of work in his school exactly as it took place and discussed the potentialities of such films for in-service training of teachers. Warren (107) described a radio course for Massachusetts teachers offered by the Massachusetts Division of University Extension in which teachers could earn academic credit. In order to receive credit they were required to listen to ten of twenty-six broadcasts, submit four written reports on background reading and two summaries covering the broadcasts, and take a final examination.

Reactions of Individual Teachers to In-Service Programs

A number of teachers, individually and in small groups, have described and appraised programs of in-service teacher education in terms of their own achievement. These reports are exceedingly illuminating. Burnett (21) reported on help she received from summer attendance at a science workshop. Shular (93) gave an account of her own efforts to develop social concepts thru high-school English material. A report on her own attempt to meet more adequately the needs of pupils was given by Lowance (62). She points out that schools vary in their readiness for experimental democratic programs. Also that it is necessary to give students many glimpses of the newer type education before they embrace it as an opportunity to realize their own purposes.

Anderson, Ramsey, and Wall (2) reported in detail their experience in planning an eight-week trip to the cooperating schools in the Stanford Social Education Investigation and to the workshop on the Stanford Campus. This method of in-service education subsidized by scholarship is especially useful in developing local leadership and resource personnel. Kaylor (57) indicated ways in which the school librarian can be helpful to and helped by an in-service teacher education program. Ten teachers with fellowships from the General Education Board reported (3) the results of their work in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, listing prob-

lem areas critical in the life of Southern youth, objectives for helping Southern youth, and the behavior of youth that should serve as criteria of success in teaching.

Reports of the Commission on Teacher Education

Altho the reports of the Commission on Teacher Education are being reviewed in a separate chapter, it seems appropriate that some of them be listed here because of their direct or indirect bearing on programs of in-service teacher education. Faulkner and Davis (40) described the nature and outcome of teachers' participation in the art programs at workshops. Teachers for Our Times (27) described the qualifications of teachers and the nature of education after examining "our children" and "our culture." Troyer and Pace (105) discussed the interrelated function of learning and evaluation in in-service teacher education. The entire volume by Prall and Cushman (80) concerns the human engineering, planning, and procedures of the in-service teacher education in small and large communities. Portions of the report on the preservice education of teachers by Armstrong, Hollis, and Davis (13) attempt to bridge the gap between preservice and in-service teacher education. A report from the Commission's Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel (28) described the efforts of teachers to understand children in a small city school system over a three-year period.

Summary

Altho teachers' spontaneous expressions of their problems today are similar to those of eighty years ago, recent studies show that as teachers organized to study their problems they came to grip with deeper-rooted and more basic issues. In this process, a number of trends have clearly emerged. Faculty meetings were noteworthy in the past for their attention to routine matters. There is a strong tendency now for faculties to organize into groups for child or community study, curriculum revision, or improving evaluation. Workshops in which consultants from professional schools are brought in to work on local problems are replacing extension courses conducted according to predetermined outlines. In reviewing the literature of the past three years it is all the more clear that problems in the schools do not fall within specific course lines. Likewise, there is an increasing tendency in summer sessions toward spontaneous development of flexible programs organized around emerging educational problems of schools and communities. And in certain localities administrators and teachers of neighboring schools are associating themselves in a cooperative attack on educational problems of common interest and concern.

Cooperative and democratic processes in the planning and procedure of in-service training are stressed thruout most of the literature, perhaps to some readers ad nauseam. These processes are complex and hence do not lend themselves readily to clear-cut, highly controlled research study.

However, they can, and should be, studied more carefully and more objectively. The majority of the reports were weak in this regard. Nevertheless, it is entirely possible that history will give much credit to teacher education for keeping the democratic process alive during a period when there was a tendency in our schools and in our government to disregard democratic procedures and delegate unlimited authority to meet local and national emergencies.

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CHAPTER VIII

Teaching Load and Assignments

HARL R. DOUGLASS and STEPHEN ROMINE

A REVIEW OF SELECTED STUDIES dealing with teaching load and assignments published during the three-year period 1943-45, inclusive, is herewith presented. The review reveals a decreasing number of investigations as compared with past years, particularly with respect to subject combinations.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio

Blose and Alves (2) found that, with the exception of the depression year 1933-34, the pupil-teacher ratio, until the outbreak of the war, remained rather constant: 25.2 in 1929-30, 26.9 in 1933-34, 25.0 in 1937-38, 25.2 in 1939-40, with a very slight rise to 24.5 in 1941-42. That there was wide variation in this ratio is evident from the following extremes for the year 1941-42:

States Having High Ratios		States Having Low Ratios	
North Carolina	31.2	South Dakota	14.6
Mississippi	29.7	North Dakota	15.6
Maryland	29.2	Nebraska	16.5
Alabama	28.8	Wyoming	16.8
Arkansas	27.8	Montana	17.5
Virginia	27.8	Iowa	18.8

States having the higher ratios were generally Southern, whereas those having the lower ratios were Western North Central.

Blose (3) reported 36.5 as the 1943-44 ratio of pupils to teachers in the public elementary and secondary schools of 39 states. In a study of 36 Idaho high schools ranging in enrolment from 150 to 650 pupils, Tate (16) indicated that the pupil-teacher ratio varied from 23 to 29, Nelson (12) stated that in California high schools the average ratio of pupils to certificated personnel for several years had been about 25.0, altho in 1942-43 it dropped to 23.5. Figures for the pupil-teacher ratio in eighty-nine large cities showed wide range on all levels for the year 1941-42 (11): elementary, from 21.1 to 39.2; junior high school, from 13.0 to 35.8; and high school, from 18.2 to 31.7. In a study of 123 schools in sixty-eight cities of over 100,000 population, Herrick (7) found that in 1943-44 the pupil-teacher ratio ranged from 16.55 to 34.0. The number of pupils per teacher, he indicated, was usually in the middle twenties, with a median of approximately 24.5.

It is doubtful if the figures in these several studies are comparable, for definitions of methods employed in determining the ratios were not given in each case.

Class Size

Herrick (7) determined that in scheduling class size in high school the figure thirty was most generally sought and that forty was the common limit beyond which class size was not favored, except in certain subjects. Smaller classes were sought in household and industrial arts and larger classes in physical education and music. The most frequent minimum class size was twenty in most subjects and fifteen in foreign languages, household and industrial arts, and mathematics.

In a study of elementary schools in New York, New York, it was concluded that class size was a major determinant of teacher load, and teachers recommended 30.99 as the median reasonable class size, and a median maximum class size, under favorable teaching conditions, of 34.72. Ninety-three percent of teachers of large classes felt that their load was too heavy while the same percent of teachers of small classes felt that their load was reasonable or light (15). Gray (6) stated that during the first term of 1943 the Detroit schools were reported as having more than 5000 classes of forty or more children and revealed that a recommendation passed by the Detroit Teachers' Association Congress requested the adoption of a plan for the gradual reduction of class load to a maximum of thirty pupils within a five-year period.

Some Influences of Class Size in the Elementary School

In a study of three phases of adaptability as related to class size and involving thirty-six primary classes in four wealthy residential communities in New Jersey, Newell (14) found in each case statistically reliable differences between classes of three sizes. He defined these as small (fewer than twenty-five pupils), medium (twenty-five to thirty pupils), and large (over thirty pupils). Interpreting his findings, he suggested that teachers of small classes exhibited more inventiveness than those of larger classes and that small classes were particularly effective in that they appeared to take on new practices more readily. He also indicated that there was some evidence of a critical level above which classes were too large for adaptability, altho individual teacher variations were such as to make difficult the determination of a norm in class size for all teachers.

The influence of class size as it relates to the pupil's social and physical growth and the development of his personality and character was studied in one hundred elementary schools in New York City (15). Based on teacher opinions of class size, the testing of teachers' knowledge of their pupils and observation of classroom procedures and activities certain conclusions were reached, among which were the following: (a) of classroom conditions or activities the three involving the greatest expenditures of the teacher's time, energy, and attention were adaptation of class work to individual differences, size of classes, and clerical activities; (b) smaller classes were considered preferable from the standpoints of the teacher's

knowledge of individual pupils, the variety of learning activities carried on in the classroom, the contribution of the children to the activities, the attention given to development of desirable social outcomes, and the greater reliance placed on cooperative pupil-teacher planning and participation as a basis of social control.

Adjusting Class Size in the Elementary School

Armstrong (1) reported a plan for adjusting class size in elementary schools according to the characteristics of the children taught. He assumed a standard class size of forty pupils and proposed reduction from this figure on the basis of four factors: enrolment, intelligence, transiency, and reading difficulty. For each of these factors a graduated table of addition and subtraction are given by the author. In addition to these, Armstrong prescribed further adjustment in class size upon three bases: (a) percent of children retarded in arithmetic; (b) percent of overage children; and (c) percent of problem cases due to emotional or personality disturbances.

Assignment of Teaching Periods and Extracurriculum Activities

The number of periods of classroom teaching assigned in 1943-1944 as a normal load in cities of more than 100,000 population was usually twenty-five or thirty and was higher in schools having short periods (under fifty minutes) (Herrick 7). Herrick also indicated that non-academic teachers were generally assigned more periods of classroom teaching but were assigned fewer non-teaching duties so that the total load was about the same for each group. Typical schools assigned the normal load, as they defined it, to 95 percent of their teachers. Two methods were commonly found for distributing non-teaching duties (6): (a) division among all, or practically all, teachers for substantially equal loads (44 percent of schools); and (b) assignment of such duties to the more competent teachers with equalization of their load by reducing the classroom teaching load (46 percent of schools). The same study revealed that coaches carried somewhat heavier loads, in most cases coaching in addition to the regular day of teaching, and a majority of schools (51 percent) did not assign principals and deans to teach classes.

Macdougal (9) found that in fifty-nine secondary schools in British Columbia the teacher load ranged from less than twenty clock hours to almost thirty hours of teaching per week, with an average of 4.69 hours per day. Wide range also existed with respect to the degree to which teachers were relieved of extraclass assignments. In a study of secondary schools in Ontario, Clubine (4) indicated wide disparity in the extracurriculum loads carried by teachers and suggested that this load increased as the size of the school increased. It was also stated that the mean extracurricu-

lum load of men teachers was approximately 44 percent greater than that of women.

Factors in the Measurement of Teaching Load

In an analysis of the teaching load problem Nelson (12) (13) listed thirteen factors to be considered. Myers (10) presented a table of frequency of the appearance of thirty-six factors related to teaching load as found in the literature. He classified these into three categories as follows:

Personnel	12 factors
Curriculum and Administrative	16 factors
Personal Morale	8 factors

Suggesting eight factors as basic, he then rated a number of formulas as to which factors each considered.

TABLE I

Item Analysis of Teaching Load Formulas (9)

	Abraham	Almack-Bursch	Brown-Fritzmeir	Douglass	Harrington	Hutson	Woody-Bergman	Sand
Class periods	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Duplicate assignments					x			x
No. of preparations			x	x				
No. of pupils	x	x	x	x		x		x
Cooperations		x	x	x				x
Length of period	x		x	x				
Subject weight		x	x	x			x	
Standard teaching load					x		x	

Indicating a need for weighing the principal factors objectively, Myers (10) stated that this was satisfactorily accomplished mathematically by the Douglass formula.

Clubine (4) discussed a number of single factors as measures of teaching load and the measurement of such load by a number of different formulas, finally using a modified form of the Douglass formula in a study of secondary schools. In this form the "cooperations" factor of the Douglass formula was divided into two parts so that relationships between the instructional load, the extracurriculum load and the specially assigned load might be seen more easily. Macdougal (9) employed teacher opinion as a measure of load and concluded from his study that in general the grade level was not a significant factor in the grades nine to twelve.

A New Formula for Measuring Teaching Load in Junior Colleges

Lyon (8) developed a formula which involved ten factors for measuring teaching load on the junior college level:

1. Enrolment
2. Formal lecture hours weekly
3. Discussion and supervised laboratory hours weekly
4. Unsupervised laboratory, gym and conference hours weekly
5. New courses
6. Meetings off the campus and evenings per week
7. Paper grading enrolment weekly
8. Other paper grading enrolment
9. Number of advisees
10. Number of allowed weekly hours for non-teaching duties.

Lyon set the maximum load tentatively at forty-five and stated that five different classes on the junior college level constituted a full program if the point value exceeded forty.

Load of Inexperienced as Compared to Experienced Teachers

Evans (5) reported that a recent survey of six states revealed assignments and loads of new and inexperienced teachers as being less desirable than those held in general by all teachers in the same states. Clubine (4) found that the mean total load of all inexperienced teachers was approximately 2 percent greater than that of experienced teachers, altho the evidence was conflicting and differences between the two groups were not statistically significant. Experienced teachers were found to carry heavier specially assigned loads and lighter extracurriculum loads (4).

Teaching Load in Canadian Secondary Schools

Macdougal (9) investigated subject and grade level factors in the high schools of British Columbia. Five phases of the teacher's job were rated on a point scale with respect to both "difficulty" and "time spent." He found that some teachers were spending as much as 50 percent more actual teaching time per week than were others. The study was based on teacher opinion, and from ratings based on twenty or more returns for each subject he derived the following subject coefficients which he recommended be employed in the Douglass formula as the "SC" factor:

    1.1   General Science V, Physical Science, Social Studies V
    1.0   English III, IV, V, VI; General Science III, IV; Geography I, II; Guidance III, IV, V, VI; Junior Business, Social Studies III, IV
     .9   French I, II, III; Health III, IV, V, VI; Latin I, II, III; Physical Education III, IV, V, VI; Shorthand I, II; Typewriting I, II
     .8   Business Arithmetic; Mathematics III, IV, V, VI

These differ from Douglass' coefficients most markedly in that higher co-efficients were found for science and physical education and lower coeffi-cients for English, foreign languages, and mathematics. These may reflect differences in teaching between Canadian schools and schools in the United States.

In a study of the secondary schools of Ontario, Clubine (4) employed a modified form of the Douglass formula and related teaching load to a number of factors: (a) size of school, (b) type of school, (c) sex of teacher, (d) teaching experience, (e) salary paid, (f) size of staff, (g) absence due to illness, and (h) subject fields. Many inequalities, within and between schools, were revealed with respect to the instructional load, the extracurriculum load and the specially assigned load. The heaviest total load reported was nearly three times that of the lightest.

Instructional loads tended to decrease, Clubine (4) reported, as size of school increased, altho there was variation among types of schools and the extracurriculum load increased as the size of the school increased. The mean total load of all women teachers was indicated as approximately 5 percent greater than that of all men, altho the latter carried substantially heavier extracurriculum and specially assigned loads. Teacher load tended to decrease as salary or staff increased, and while the results were not statistically reliable, it was found also that teachers absent ten days or more were carrying heavier loads than those who were absent five days or less. Differences in teacher load within several subject fields were deter-mined.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Variation in the definition of a teacher and in the methods employed in determining the pupil-teacher ratio make difficult any accurate comparison of the results of many studies. Some standardization in this process, or at least clear definition and explanation in each study, would afford a better basis for comparison and make it possible to interpret more accurately the findings of each study.

The influence of class size upon classroom procedure and upon the indi-vidual pupil is an area in which more research is needed and out of which may come important principles which will be valuable to the administrator in scheduling class size. Likewise, the problem of adjusting class size on the basis of characteristics of the members of the class should be studied further.

Studies of the related aspects of teaching load and assignment continue to employ both objective and subjective technics, and continued research and experimentation employing such technics is recommended. The area of subject combinations has recently been neglected and is one in which additional research is needed.

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CHAPTER IX

Teachers' Salaries

HAZEL DAVIS

IN SEVERAL RESPECTS the research materials reported in this section are quite different from the studies usually cited in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. The most striking difference is found in the large number of reports for which no individual author is cited; cooperative research is typical of work in this field. Another unusual characteristic is the large proportion of reports sponsored by organizations of teachers. The content of the reports is likewise different; under strictly academic definitions much of the material listed might be labeled as reporting rather than research. Less rigorous selection could have resulted in a bibliography of at least two hundred titles, instead of the eighty mentioned.

Reports on Salaries Paid and Scheduled

Average salaries of teachers, principals, and supervisors combined, by states and for the nation as a whole, were reported annually by the United States Office of Education, as, for example, in Blose's (6) figures for 1943-44. The National Education Association Research Division (44, 45) continued its biennial study of salaries of city-school employees. Each of the NEA biennial studies was supplemented by reports showing median and average salaries for individual cities (46) and salaries scheduled in the larger cities (41, 50, 51, 52, 53).

Minimum-salary standards were analyzed by the NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom (38) in a report which showed that twenty-six states now have some type of minimum-salary standard, including eleven in which there is a minimum schedule on a state basis.

The number of state education associations reporting statewide compilations on salaries paid in local systems increased. Among those that reported such information at least once during the past three years were Alabama (1), Arizona (3), California (10), Colorado (12), Connecticut (65), Indiana (25), Iowa (26), Massachusetts (33), Minnesota (76), Montana, (35), Nebraska (36), New Jersey (58) New York (60), Ohio (63), South Dakota (80), Utah (77), Washington (31), and Wisconsin (79). In Kansas such a report was made by the school of education of the state university (27). Rogers (66) showed trends in urban and rural salaries in Michigan for the five years beginning in 1938-39; Cooke (14) reported on life earnings of Michigan teachers who had retired recently, finding an average of $42,376 for women and $55,956 for men.

An extensive personnel survey of teachers in Connecticut (13) covered salaries and included other economic factors, such as dependency load, supplemental income, and living arrangements. More than half of the men

teachers and more than a fifth of the women teachers supplemented their salaries as teachers with outside earnings.

Impact of the War on Teachers' Salaries

Teachers' salaries were rising thruout 1943, 1944 and 1945. In 1942-43 48 percent of the city-school systems with salary schedules reporting to the NEA Research Division (44) had bonuses or special increases in effect above the scheduled rates. In 1944-45, 55 percent of the cities with salary schedules had revised the schedules upward during the past two years and nearly half of that number were paying a supplemental bonus or special increase; in addition, 39 percent of the cities were paying a bonus but had not revised their schedules (45). Rural salaries rose also; the average salary, rural and urban combined, for teachers, principals, and supervisors was $1599 in 1942-43, and was estimated at $1725 in 1943-44 and $1850 in 1944-45 (21).

Such increases, however, lagged so far behind those in other occupations that teachers as an economic group were at a great disadvantage (42, 48, 49). The Mississippi Education Association (34) found that teacher turnover between 1943-44 and 1945-46 was 56 percent, that 80 percent of those leaving the profession for other employment did so for an increase in pay, and that the average increase in pay was 47 percent. The 1945 graduates of Mississippi colleges who became teachers received beginning salaries that averaged $1291 for women and $1600 for men; nonteachers received an average of $1800 for women and $2400 for men.

In 1941 and 1942 costs of living rose faster than teachers' average salaries were rising, so that teachers lost ground in absolute purchasing power as well as in comparison with other groups (40). Wiseman (80) reported that cost of room and board for rural teachers in South Dakota increased 18 percent from 1943-44 to 1944-45. A Maryland (32) study of ten counties showed that average monthly expenditures were in excess of salary for the typical teacher. Teachers in Caddo Parish (9) and in Texas (72) cities likewise reported deficit spending. Urban teachers reporting to the NEA (47) in 1943-44 needed a median of 29.2 percent added to their salary to maintain a satisfactory plane of living in their communities; rural teachers needed 43.6 percent additional.

Almack's (2) report for the California Teachers Association questioned the accuracy of the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of cost of living as applied to teachers, and proposed higher figures for California. The NEA Research Division (40) took a more favorable view of the accuracy of the BLS index, discussed other indexes and their possible relation to teachers' salary questions, and analyzed the problem faced by local systems in adjusting salaries to changes in living costs.

The Wisconsin Education Association (78) reported several local plans for an automatic cost-of-living adjustment that would in part stabilize the value of the salary schedule by adding or subtracting amounts determined

by the level of the cost-of-living index. Descriptions of the plans adopted in Milwaukee (73) and Barrington, Rhode Island (29) were published; such a plan was recommended by Simpson (23, 67) for Meriden, Connecticut, and for Quincy, Massachusetts.

The Office of Price Administration (62) prepared several releases demonstrating the importance of price control after May 1943 in overcoming part of the loss in purchasing power undergone by teachers during 1941 and 1942 and making comparisons on these factors between World War I and World War II.

Littell's (28) article in the *Reader's Digest*, combining research and comment in challenging fashion, aroused widespread public interest. The National Opinion Research Center (55) reported that 48 percent of the American people thought that teachers were paid too little for the job they are expected to do; 31 percent thought they were paid about right; only 2 percent thought they were paid too much; and 9 percent were undecided.

Altho other section headings of this chapter do not mention the war directly, almost every type of study relating to teachers' salaries has been influenced by war conditions. State minimum standards have been raised; local salary schedules have been revised; there have been increased demands for information and statements of guiding principles.

Salaries Paid, in Relation to Other Factors

Burke's (8) analysis of relationship between salaries and certain professional factors for about three thousand New York teachers showed that higher-paid teachers were more likely than lower-paid teachers to have master's degrees, to have attended summer school and extension courses, to have traveled extensively, and to have engaged in educational experimentation.

Hartkemeier (22) used analysis of variance to show the degree of relationship between salaries and sex, size of school, and experience for commercial teachers in Missouri.

Five studies (8, 22, 27, 54, 76) showed a tendency for higher levels of salaries to be associated with higher levels of preparation, except that teachers with low levels of preparation were found in several comparisons to have average salaries somewhat higher than teachers with bachelor's degrees. Experience is even more directly related to salaries than preparation, and a majority of the teachers with substandard preparation had been teaching for many years.

Issues in Salary Scheduling

Recurring problems in salary scheduling continued to receive attention, such as differentials versus equal pay for men and women, the single-salary schedule for elementary and high schools, and recognition of merit in salary scheduling. Spears (68) and Tinsley (74) made analyses of the arguments pro and con on these and other salary issues.

Progress toward equal pay for the sexes and toward the single-salary schedule for elementary and high schools was reported by Davis (16, 17). The NEA Research Division (47) analyzed opinions of classroom teachers on salary recognition for superior teaching, on preparation schedules versus position schedules, and on salary differentials for men teachers and for dependency.

Cowen (15) reviewed the history of family allowance plans in salary scheduling for teachers and gave the arguments in refutation of the most common criticisms of the plan. Staffelbach (69) reported favorable reactions to family allowances from superintendents in communities where the plan was in effect.

Nelson (57) proposed that half of the teacher's salary should be dependent on the amount of progress shown by pupils on standardized tests of subjectmatter learning. School administrators, polled by the *Nation's Schools* (56), reported on preferred types of salary schedules; substantial majorities voted for schedules that include a merit feature.

Adjustments in making the transition from an old schedule to a new one were classified by the NEA Research Division (39) as being of two types: (a) nonretroactive, in which the teacher's salary on the old schedule determines his location on the new schedule; and (b) retroactive, in which full credit for previous experience is given in determining the teacher's placement on the new schedule. The New Jersey Education Association (59) reproduced three sample salary schedules which provided for the retroactive type of adjustment, providing for the transition over a five-year period.

Research in Developing Local Salary Policy

Numerous articles and reports were published illustrating the use of research in greater or lesser degree in working out a salary policy for a single local school system. Teachers associations, administrative officials, consultants from outside the school system, and committees combining all of these groups were represented in these studies.

In Atlanta (4) and Dearborn (18), city-school research bureaus reported detailed analyses of salary practices in comparable school systems; in Duluth (19) the administrative staff made a historical study of salary policies in the community and reported principles and comparisons basic to a recommended new schedule.

Several general school surveys included sections on salaries. Among these giving comparisons and trends were the Boston survey, directed by Strayer (70); that for Tenafly, directed by Norton (61); and the Winchester survey by Fowlkes (20). The University of Chicago (11) surveying schools in Grand Rapids, and the University of Texas (30) reporting on the schools of Goose Creek, Texas, also included recommendations on salaries.

Consultant service was rendered by Willard S. Elsbree (7) in the local study of salaries in Brockton; by Alfred D. Simpson (23) in the Meriden

study; and by John C. Almack (64) in Portland, Oregon. The Quincy study was directed by Simpson (67).

In Caddo Parish (9) a committee was organized by the schoolboard to include representatives of local civic organizations and the school faculties. The Summit, New Jersey, (71) study was initiated by the teachers association, and the survey committee included several members of the the association, as well as a large number of members from community groups.

State education associations in Massachusetts (5), New Jersey (59), Pennsylvania (37), and Utah (75) drafted suggestions for the guidance of school districts in drafting salary schedules. All of these reports suggested research procedures. In Pennsylvania and Utah these reports were a follow-up to the adoption of new state minimum-salary schedules, which necessitated revision of many local schedules.

Need for Research

Most of the work reported in this chapter was done to meet an immediate local, state, or national need—either for facts or for a decision on policy. This kind of need and this kind of research undoubtedly will continue. Research of a more reflective, analytical type is also needed to supplement this work done under pressure of time.

1. What are the long-time trends in salaries of various groups in the teaching profession, in relation to economic trends and in relation to each other?
2. What is the actual investment in preparation for teaching, and what is the relation of this investment to life earnings in teaching as compared with other occupational groups?
3. Could simple methods be devised, for use in local situations, for measuring the costs of appropriate standards of living for teachers?
4. What has been the economic effect of a changing balance of the sexes in occupations that have become increasingly feminized?
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of some of the unusual salary policies that are found in only a few school systems?
6. What are the problems faced, and how are they solved, by state education departments in administering state minimum-salary laws?
7. What was the combined effect of salary increases, price trends, new income tax requirements, and war savings drives on the value of the spendable income of various groups of teachers during the war years?

A leisurely and tentative exploration is needed of questions such as these, that arouse the curiosity of the student in this field. Answers to these questions might or might not be helpful in deciding specific questions of salary policy—only research can tell.

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CHAPTER X

Teacher Tenure

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Tenure refers to the manner in, or the period for which, anything is had and enjoyed. The literature of professional education contains studies of both the manner in which teaching positions are held and their durations. While there are studies of both types there seems to be a tendency to limit tenure studies to those that discuss the arrangements, regulations, and conditions under which teaching positions are held.

Teacher Turnover

The problem of turnover, which is one of long standing in the teaching profession, was made more acute by conditions arising during the war period. The United States Commissioner of Education reports, for example, from a sampling of 247 counties and 201 cities for October 1942 (18), that 5289 teachers in the counties and 3675 teachers in the cities were leaving their positions. The rate of teacher turnover for cities was 9.3 percent; for counties, 23.9 percent; and for the United States as a whole, 17.3 percent. For the entire public elementary and secondary school systems about 137,900 teachers were new to their positions in the fall of 1942; 166,857 for the school year 1943-44 and 127,364 for 1944-45. Among the reasons given for men leaving teaching were the following: 50.5 percent entered the armed forces, 14.7 percent took over other teaching jobs, 14.1 percent entered war industries, 4.9 percent entered federal employment, and 4.1 percent entered other positions; for the women: 28.7 percent took other teaching jobs, 19.7 percent married, 8 percent retired, 7.1 percent entered war industries, and 5.4 percent entered federal employment. While the exit from the profession has slowed down somewhat with the termination of military activities the turnover and rate of leaving the profession has continued high. From a poll conducted by the *Nation's Schools* (6) in September 1944, 80 percent reported leaving the profession because of low salaries; 78 percent because of better opportunities elsewhere; and 38 percent because of insecurity of tenure. Pylman (15) reports that only 22.7 percent of the 1920 Michigan trained graduates were still in the profession in 1942. Studies of teacher turnover in other states reveal similar conditions.

New Legislation

The legislatures of Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Nebraska, and Tennessee enacted new tenure laws. Indiana in 1945 (2) enacted a law forbidding the contracting after May 1, 1947, of anyone over sixty-six years of age and providing for their dismissal upon reaching the age limit. Kentucky in 1944

(3) declared that the state must enter into limited or continuing contracts for the employment of all public school teachers. Michigan in 1945 (5) legislated that all contracts must be in written form and state the restrictions, work, and requirements of the individual under contract. This statute also provides that after a two-year-probationary period a continuing contract go into effect. Nebraska in 1943 (14) provided permanent tenure for all teachers in cities having a population of over 40,000. Nothing in the statute prevents the suspension of a permanent teacher. Tennessee in 1943 (17) legislated that a teacher's services shall continue unless a written notice from the board of education informs of the dismissal or failure of reelection at least thirty days prior to the close of the term.

Court Decisions

The Committee on Tenure and the Research Division of the National Education Association have rendered annual reports on Court Decisions on Teacher Tenure since 1933. Their summaries of decisions reported in 1943 (8), 1944 (9), and 1945 (10), cover a large variety of cases. During the calendar year 1943, the appellate courts of seventeen states rendered thirty decisions regarding teacher tenure. During 1944 twenty-three decisions in fifteen states were rendered, and during 1945 thirty decisions in fourteen states. Their decisions related to such matters as the constitutionality of tenure laws, continuing contracts, annual contracts, assignments, procedure, types of positions covered by tenure laws, security rights, permanency, demotions, transfer, salaries, acquisition of tenure rights, leaves of absence, assignment, certification to eligibility lists, contract forms, suspension of tenure, dismissal of probationary teachers, retirement and various technical matters. The majority of cases have been in states with new laws needing specific interpretation and those providing for tenure after a probationary period.

Summary

Two facts seem to stand out from a study of the literature relating to teacher tenure: (a) there is a very great amount of coming and going in the teaching profession; only a very small fraction of the teaching profession comes to be permanently associated with particular schools and communities; (b) progress seems to have been made during the three-year period covered by this report in developing means of providing increased security to deserving members of the profession.

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CHAPTER XI

Pensions and Retirement Pay

LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN

Research on teacher retirement has been somewhat limited during the past three years. There has been considerable writing on the subject, as has been the case for previous periods, but much of what has appeared recently in the various educational journals could hardly be described as research. There would, in fact, be few studies worthy of review were it not for the efforts of the Research Division of the National Education Association. This review brings up to date corresponding summaries on pensions and retirement for previous periods (REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH for April 1931, June 1934, June 1937, June 1940, and June 1943).

The Present Status of Teacher Retirement

The Research Division of the National Education Association (8) summarized the current status of teacher retirement in regard to the number of local and state systems and the proportion of teachers with some form of old-age protection. It was shown that public school teachers were protected in 1945 by statewide joint-contributory retirement plans in forty-four states. Three additional states maintained statewide plans to which teachers did not contribute. Local retirement and pension plans were in operation in more than fifty cities and counties. The proportion of all public school teachers with protection under joint-contributory reserve systems was 98 percent. An additional 1 percent had protection under pension or noncontributory plans. A similar analysis for 1944 was made by the Research Division of the National Education Association in cooperation with the Department of Classroom Teachers (7). This study considered, in addition, the history of the retirement movement, types of pension and retirement plans, the establishment of a sound system, the essentials of a good plan, social security as a substitute, and the limitations of teacher retirement systems. It concluded with a series of questions for study and a checklist for evaluating a system. The study was directed to the classroom teachers of the country and adds little to the factual data available.

In cooperation with the National Council on Teacher Retirement the Research Division of the National Education Association made a statutory analysis of retirement provisions for teachers and other school employees (10). The section dealing with retirement plans for teachers covered the following aspects of existing state legislation: cash disbursement and reserve plans, teacher representation on retirement boards, actuarial valuations, administrative expenses, restrictions on investments, types of positions covered, voluntary and compulsory membership, employers' contributions, members' contributions, payments in cases of withdrawal, age

and service requirements, superannuation of service allowances, optional benefits, disability requirements and allowances, military leave, and the guarantee clause. A second section of the study covered retirement provisions for non-teaching employees. The analysis involved statewide plans for non-certificated employees, and permissive legislation making possible local coverage for such personnel.

In 1943 the Bureau of the Census and the Social Security Board made studies of the protection afforded state and local government employees by retirement systems (1, 16). The two reports were based upon the same data. The report of the Bureau of the Census was essentially tabular and dealt primarily with membership and fiscal statistics. The report published by the Social Security Board analyzed the legal provisions in addition to covering the membership and fiscal data. These studies are again referred to in a later section of this review.

Fischer (2) pointed out some of the principles that must be observed in any type of retirement plan if it is to be permanently successful. He emphasized the advantages which actuaries have cited for a current cost plan for governmental contributory systems. James (3) listed some of the considerations that should govern in determining the retirement age; and Morton (5) presented data on established salary ceilings upon which deductions may be based. Rosenfield (15) reviewed the activities of 1943 legislative sessions with respect to teacher retirement. He showed that thirty-seven of the forty-four legislatures in session that year enacted some legislation on this subject and briefly analyzed these enactments.

Statistics on Teacher Retirement Systems

The Research Division of the National Education Association has continued its studies of membership and financial statistics of state and local teacher retirement systems (8). Membership statistics covered total enrolments, separations resulting from various causes, and data on memberships and withdrawals for 1943-44. The Pennsylvania system, which covers all school employees, was the largest in terms of members, with a total enrolment of 208,857 and an active membership of 81,314. From 34 to 96 percent of the members of the systems studied had terminated their enrolment in all state and local systems withdrawals exceeded retirements. Retirement was the cause of termination of membership of .8 percent of those active at the beginning of the membership year, death was the cause in the case of .2 percent, and withdrawals accounted for approximately 8 percent.

The financial statistics covered sources of income, an analysis of disbursements, general financial statistics, retirement allowances paid, and administrative expenses. Data were presented to show the amounts of income received from public sources, members' contributions, interest, and miscellaneous sources. "The principal purposes for which funds are used are for payment of retirement allowances and for refunds of accumulated

contributions of members who die or leave the service before retirement" (8, p. 36). A fiscal summary showed the ledger assets at the beginning of the year, the income during the year, total disbursements, and the ledger assets at the close of the year. Minimum, maximum, and average retirement allowances were presented for each system covered by the study. Administrative costs were analyzed in some detail and data were presented on the number of administrative workers and their salaries.

As indicated above, the Bureau of the Census and the Social Security Board prepared statistical studies of retirement systems operated by state and local governments (1, 16). These studies covered 1753 retirement programs, including state and local systems for teachers and other educational employees. The extent and character of coverage in governmental units of varying sizes were considered, and a detailed analysis was made of the principal features of the retirement systems considered. The teacher retirement plans covered by the study included forty state systems, sixty-four city plans, and eight county systems. It was shown that the coverage of school employees represented approximately half of the protection afforded by all state and local plans. Benefits to school retirants were, on the average, lower than those paid by systems covering other governmental employees. Of the 158,000 beneficiaries receiving monthly payments from state and local retirement systems, 74 percent had been retired for age or service, 10 percent were classified as disabled, and 16 percent were survivors. The monthly benefits averaged $77 for beneficiaries retired for age, $59 for disabled beneficiaries, and $54 for survivors. Both of these studies (1, 16) have been reviewed in some detail by the Research Division of the National Education Association. These reviews appeared as *Special Bulletin No. 30, Social Security and Teachers, October 3, 1944.* (Mimeo.)

Morton (5) studied thirty-seven state systems operating on a joint-contributory basis to determine the top salary upon which members' contributions may be based. He found that nineteen of the thirty-eight systems have no ceilings. The maximum salaries from which deductions may be made ranged in the other eighteen states from $2000 to $7500.

Teacher Retirement and Social Security

The Research Division of the National Education Association (9) studied the contributions that might be made and the benefits that might be available to certain typical teachers under existing state retirement systems and under federal social security. Five examples were cited. It was pointed out that care must be exercised in interpreting such comparisons since the two types of plans are different as to basic purposes. The Research Division (6) also reviewed the proposals that have been made for including teachers under the Social Security Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance. Four types of bills were analyzed and consideration was given to pending legislation and to possible developments. Kimbler (4) also summarized the changes that have been proposed in the Social Security program and discussed their bearing on the teaching profession.

Retirement in Colleges and Universities

In four articles (11, 12, 13, 14) Robbins examined several of the important problems associated with the old-age protection of members of college and university faculties. One of these articles (11) dealt with the necessity for the reexamination of existing systems and the methods to be followed in making modifications to care for changed conditions. Emphasis was placed on the effect on the size of retirement benefits of such factors as the changed purchasing power of the dollar, reduced interest rates, and new data with respect to longevity. Methods of making modifications were illustrated by typical cases. In a second article (12) attention was directed to the advantages of annuity contracts with insurance companies as opposed to an annuity business operated by the institution. Particular stress was laid on the mobility possible when the contributor has his own annuity contract with a commercial organization. Robbins (13) also analyzed the reasons that institutions frequently give for not establishing old-age protection for their faculties. He listed the questions that should be asked about existing plans and emphasized the need for a periodic check-up of every system. In the fourth article referred to above (14) attention is directed to the elements of a sound retirement plan for an institution of higher learning, the values of such a plan, the importance of mobility without loss of benefits, deterrents to the inauguration of retirement systems, and responsibility for retirement planning. Arguments against a uniform retirement age were advanced by Withers (17).

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CHAPTER XII

Teacher Certification

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

The literature since June 1943 pertaining to the certification of teachers can be grouped within four major divisions: (a) current state requirements for teacher certificates, (b) improving requirements for teacher certificates, (c) emergency certificates for teachers, and (d) status of reciprocity among states regarding teacher certificates.

Current State Requirements for Teacher Certificates

Information concerning the status of state requirements for teacher certificates has appeared in three forms. The first is a description of the requirements for a single state issued by the state department of education. Such bulletins describe the requirements in great detail. A second form is an individual article which describes in less technical fashion the specific requirements of a particular state. Descriptive articles of this kind have been written concerning most of the states and are typified by the ones regarding California (5), Illinois (13), Kentucky (15), and Louisiana (18). The third form used for presenting state requirements is the digest of such requirements for all states. This type of digest has been presented annually by Woellner and Wood (29), for the past ten years.

Suggestions for Improving Requirements for Teacher Certificates

The present status of requirements for teacher certificates is not equally satisfactory to all educators and laymen. Some of the adverse criticisms, however, are in no sense constructive. Several articles have appeared which offer constructive suggestions. The criteria for improving the teacher certification requirements for Texas by Adams (1) have broader implication and are presented here as summarized by the reviewer.

1. Certification rules must be flexible.
2. In teacher training more emphasis should be placed upon non-course training such as travel, social welfare work, etc.
3. We must be knowledge-minded and give less hero-worship to degrees.
4. Completion of a required course should not make a person eligible for a certificate, but comprehensive written examinations should be taken.
5. No more life certificates should be issued.
6. Extension of certificates must not be on the basis of college training alone, but other training experiences should count.
7. The bachelor's degree should be the first prerequisite for elementary teachers' licenses and the master's degree for high-school certificates.
8. In elementary education a distinction between primary and intermediate teaching is suggested.

9. There should be no high-school blanket certification; rather individual certificates for each subject taught in high school should be substituted.
10. Administrators should hold administrators' certificates based on two years of college study beyond the bachelor's degree and several years of teaching experience.

Comparable improvement is suggested for administrative certificates (19).

Suggestions for the improvement of teacher certification requirements are both direct and indirect. The references are direct suggestions. Attention however should be focused upon three publications which most clearly imply improvement of standards for certification of teachers tho they may be considered of rather indirect approach. These publications are:

COMMISSION ON TEACHER EDUCATION. *Teachers for Our Times.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. (A statement of purposes by the Commission on Teacher Education.)

COOPER, RUSSELL M., and OTHERS. *Better Colleges—Better Teachers.* Distributed by Macmillan Co., 1944. (Published by the North Central Association Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts.)

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Emergency Certificates for Teachers

The severe shortage of fully qualified teachers in certain subjects and in various parts of the United States during the war period caused a number of states to issue emergency certificates to persons not fully equipped to meet the regular requirements for teacher certificates. This situation has been frequently commented upon during the past several years and typical of the observations which were recorded are the references in the bibliography (2, 4, 7, 11, 20, 21, 24). Blyler (4) feels that the teacher shortage has been caused by the lack of understanding that teaching has been a war job equal to any because of its paramount importance to the nation. He states that the attractive high wages of war industries and the low prestige of the teaching profession also have been important contributing factors. Richardson (24) states that it is believed that there have been more than enough legally certified teachers in Michigan; however, temporary certificates were a necessity because of the low salaries, community demands, lack of political freedom, and uncertainty of continuing tenure involved in the available teaching positions. In the article by Donohue (7) there is a discussion of the fundamental issue: What is to become of the teachers with temporary permits? He declares that the state policies on this issue must be formulated and announced to overcome the danger of being pressured into blanket certifications. It will be necessary to determine which of the emergency teachers who wish to remain in the profession are competent or can be made competent with additional training or assistance.

The Status of Reciprocity Among States
Regarding Teacher Certificates

The qualities of a good teacher know no state boundaries. Requirements to obtain a certificate to teach, however, show considerable variation among the several states. The individual states have been most reluctant in the immediate past to honor each other's teacher certificates. Reciprocity among the states regarding teacher certificates was practiced to a limited extent during the war because of the shortage of teachers. Emens (8) hopes that the experiences thus derived will have a permanent effect upon reciprocal practices among the states and he (9) feels that within the group of states which comprise the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools real progress will be made.

Lagerberg (17) points out that earlier in the history of the United States a large number of states had made provisions for full reciprocity. Currently, however, two distinct types of hurdles have interfered in reciprocal relations. These are:

1. The "direct, specific requirement aimed to bar out-of-state teachers," such as requirements for resident study, course requirements in state history, etc., and
2. The "indirect restriction which operates in several ways," such as different requirements in practice teaching, in professional training, in the number of hours of course credit, in pension systems, and in the natural inclination of local employing officials to hire local people in preference to those from more distant areas.

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CHAPTER XIII

Legal Status of Teachers

RICHARD B. THIEL

THE LEGAL STATUS of the teacher necessarily depends on the nature of his contract, his certification, and on legislation, federal as well as state statutes, by which the conditions of his employment are regulated. Modifications to fit local conditions are often written into a teacher's contract. The validity and legality of all these provisions rest on many decisions of the state courts as last-resort, occasionally supplemented by an important ruling of the United States Supreme Court. This part of the review was greatly handicapped by the suspension of the publication of the *Yearbooks of School Law* previously published by the American Council on Education. However, the excellent articles in the *Nation's Schools*, the *American School Board Journal, School Executive*, and *Clearing House* compensated somewhat for this lack. Much valuable material was found in the *Education Digest* and in reports of the Research Division of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the NEA and also in the reports and bulletins of the United States Office of Education, as well as in recent issues of *School Life* whose publication was resumed in September 1945.

Recent Developments and Laws Affecting Teacher Status

The introduction of nursery schools financed by public funds has injected new issues of certificates and legal status of school personnel thus employed (5). Many such new teachers with qualifications not fully adequate had to be employed extralegally as assistant teachers. The employment of so many teachers not fully qualified or sufficiently competent has necessitated a more efficient organization for training in service, according to Antell (2), who also revealed a much larger membership of teachers in teachers' unions or their equivalent.

Many boards of education are prejudiced against such affiliations and register their sentiments by their refusal to re-employ such affiliates. Some states like Wisconsin have so-called "Yellow Dog" statutes to prevent this kind of discrimination, others have not. This has resulted in discussion and controversy relative to the rights of teachers to join unions, or even whether such membership is ethical or professional, tho perhaps legal. Much of this discussion has taken on considerable heat (5) (16) (19) (20) (32) (38) and (39) as well as a tendency toward ironical statement. As legislation tends to lag in situations like this, local boards will continue to use their own discretion with resulting litigation sponsored by group action.

Another issue that has been raised relates to alleged discrimination against Negro teachers. In states where race segregation in schools is

prevalent facilities for training teachers are often grossly inadequate resulting in the employment of teachers lower in status (12). Similarly there has been a tendency toward lower salaries for Negro teachers not sustained by the federal court (45). On the other hand, the right of faculty members and office employees at Howard University to join unions and bargain for pay increases was recognized by the board of trustees and sets a unique precedent (67).

Among the peculiar situations affecting teacher status because of the war is the case of a conscientious objector who was dismissed for writing to a former pupil who did not register for selective service "on his courageous and idealistic stand against war." Upon suit to compel rein-statement the court held: "Where the statute is silent as to cause it is left to the tribunal having jurisdiction," in this case the board of education (63). Further legislative gains in teacher status include authorized group life insurance for teachers in Louisiana, premiums payable out of public funds and in part deductible from salary payments (61). The amendment of the Hatch Act by Congress restores schoolmen's rights to participate in elections, but still "forbids teachers from being members of any party that advocates overthrow of our constitutional form of government" (55). This raises the question of the legality of a teacher's membership in a radical communist party. Eight states have permitted retired teachers, altho five specify that there shall be no additional increments for retirement benefits. Nebraska provides for retirement at the age of seventy, permissible at 60, whereas, New Mexico has eliminated compulsory retirement at seventy (59). California has provided for five days of minimum sick leave per year cumulative to twenty-five days (59) and Wisconsin five days leave cumulative to thirty days and grants leaves of absence for military and war work (53).

Legal Status of Married Women Teachers

There has been a decided tendency to raise the general status of married women teachers legally as well as professionally (47). A general relaxation of marriage restrictions (69), and full recognition of the legal status of married women teachers (41) is deemed to be in the best interests of the schools. That much of this broader view is traceable to a greater degree of affiliation with union groups cannot be doubted (6) (19). Written-in restrictions relative to marriage may prevail; it is clear that pressure on legislation for teacher status has been eased because of the rapid release of teachers in service (50). Mention is made of an interesting Louisiana case relative to an attempted dismissal of a woman teacher with tenure status on maternity leave. The court ruled this as insufficient cause as it was not among the causes listed in the statute for legal dismissal (49).

A recent poll of five hundred representative school administrators con-stituting a good sampling for the entire nation revealed that 47 percent believed that the marital status of the teacher was relatively unimportant

(45). Recognition of higher salaries for married teachers because of dependency allowances was adjudged not illegal by the court (43).

Legal Status of Teachers Based on Contract Provisions

Wisconsin was among the states to adopt a continuing contract provision. All teachers are given notice on or before April first of the school year of employment of the renewal or refusal of their contract by majority vote of the full membership of the board. Failure to take definite action automatically extends the contract for a full year (54). All teachers will find the recent bulletin of the NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom (51) a most important contribution clarifying their legal status and their understanding of principles governing teachers' contracts. Explanation of legal capacities of parties, expositions of what constitutes offer and acceptance and rules of interpretation are given in direct and clear terms understandable by anyone. Technical terms and specifically legal phraseology are carefully avoided.

Rapid shifting of population in war times is reflected in protecting clauses written into contracts by local boards of education. The tendency had been toward the adoption of a simple form contract for use on a statewide basis. For reasons already mentioned there has crept in the inclusion of resignation restrictions, specific payment for release or breach a flat deposit, bonuses for fullfilment and payment of actual replacement costs in case of resignation (70). Courts have held that it is legal to insert into the contract a provision that teachers forfeit a part of their last month's salary if they leave during a school year on insufficient notice and that they are obligated for a reasonable amount for breach of contract (60). In a recent copy of a NEA Research Bulletin a very sane appeal is made relative to the improvement and clarity of teachers' contracts, the elimination of contractual restrictions relative to marriage, church affiliation, and group membership. Causes for dismissal should be specified and clear (57).

Legal Status of Teachers under Tenure Provisions

The interpretation of a teacher's right under tenure is subject to the wording of the statute. A decision by the New Jersey Supreme Court January 22, 1943, held in line with former decisions that New Jersey tenure laws do not grant teachers tenure on contract status but only on legislative status subject to legislative change and that legislation relative to salaries is a mere declaration of policy and subject to abrogation in the public interest (56).

In a Minnesota case the Duluth Board of Education was virtually upheld in its action of non-reappointment of certain teachers under tenure status and eligible for retirement but with no provision for compulsory retirement. The teachers involved alleged predetermination of their dismissal on

account of age alone and contended that such was therefore illegal. The court granted no relief but remanded the case back to the board recognizing their power of discretion (56).

The question as to whether a tenure teacher could be required to reside within the school district in which she was employed under a board of education rule to that effect recently arose in Pennsylvania. The superintendent undertook to find a place of residence but was resisted by the teacher who requested leave of absence for a year, which was not granted, to accompany her soldier husband. Upon her departure the board brought charges of willful and persistent neglect and non-compliance with the residence rule. The teacher appealed to the state superintendent who ordered reinstatement on compliance with residence rule within sixty days unless not obtainable. The court reversed the action of the superintendent and sustained the board in the enforcement of a resonable regulation (60). This decision was in line with an earlier California case.

The Relation of Certification to Legal Status

The contention is often made that certification sets up the legal status of the teacher which is true to the extent that without a license a teacher has no legal status for recovery of services no matter how efficiently performed. This issue, passed on so many times previously, recently arose again in Nebraska with the usual ruling (60). In a professional sense certification should be in effect the approach to a total program of education rather than of an individual to meet certain quantitative requirements in separation from degree requirements (30). However, legally the reference must be to the individual requirements. To require the teacher to know something about school law has been treated lightly by some (29). Nevertheless, the absence of this information has not been instrumental in protecting a teacher from the consequences of expensive litigation as illustrated by a rather interesting Tennessee case. The teacher in question, a British alien, held an unlimited certificate and had taught six years, sufficient to attain tenure status. The board in the meantime passed a rule in line with a state statute prescribing American citizenship and notified the teacher of termination of employment unless legal requirement could be met. The teacher brought suit contending that being in possession of a state certificate and enjoying permanent tenure status he had acquired legal status which the Supreme Court of Tennessee denied and dismissed the case (60).

The crying need for teachers in the present emergency has made necessary the granting of many emergency teaching permits for elementary school teachers, which have the force of temporary licenses (7).

An interesting observation relative to the extension of the state's control over education is made in the recent Pennsylvania statute authorizing the State Board of Vocational Education to require licenses for private trade schools and to establish supervisory regulations over their personnel (64).

Recently Texas private business schools objected to the requirement of licensing of teachers by the state on the basis of the classification of such schools. The court ruled that this matter is entirely within the discretion of the state superintendent under statutory sanction (60). The difference in status of teachers in private and public schools has had a tendency to disappear.

A complete study of requirements for certification of teachers and administrators of elementary schools, secondary schools, and junior colleges has recently been completed at the University of Chicago (73). Similarly a study of status of teacher education (9) and of wartime changes in teacher certification (26) has recently appeared. A need for more reciprocity among the states to take care of the migrations from state to state and of a better conception of the professional and human relations involved by a more liberal, (67) legal policy of certification is among the problems to be met (33) (37) (40). Some have gone so far as to suggest a policy of federal certification.

Legal Relations Arising Out of Miscellaneous Causes

It is significant to note the recognition of the Pennsylvania Legislature of the rights of Pennsylvania teachers to secure credit under the retirement law for out-of-state teaching service (14).

The compulsory retirement of a teacher for defective hearing rests upon "the legal determination imposed by statute upon designated officials," in this case the Retirement Board whose ruling was sustained by the court (60). The effort to remove Superintendent Homer W. Anderson in excess of the authority of the board enjoined by a citizen's committee was forestalled by the unanimous decision of the Court of Appeals (3). Litigation following dismissal of teachers occasionally brings up matters relative to the civil and criminal liabilities of teachers (10) (11).

A teacher's course of action is often hampered by the restrictions that surround him. For example, "There are no sections in the New York State education laws that would dispel the fear of disciplinary action, or dismissal even tho the educator is saved from money judgment for personal injuries or property damages." (42). On the other hand, it is said that there is need of getting citizens to support schools thru the efforts of enterprising teachers (1).

In the wake of a changing federal relation to education (52) and in view of the momentous changes in human relations on the international scale, it is not amiss to consider "blueprints for a world school system" (65). In contemplating the changes in status involved in a program of exchange of students and teachers with Latin American republics and other foreign nations teacher status takes on an international coloring (24). The legal aspects of such a situation demand a thoro revision of our own laws and a new outlook in terms of the United Nations Organization (36, 23).

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CHAPTER XIV

Social Status of the Teacher

HENRY LESTER SMITH

REVIEW OF RESEARCH and publications relative to the social status of the teacher for the period 1940 thru 1942 indicated a marked reduction in the number of scientific investigations in this aspect of the teacher's life (33, 34). The majority of available publications were subjective rather than objective and dealt for the most part with a special phase of the social status or with another field of education from which aspects of social status could be inferred. The trends were attributed to the war situation. The effects of the war situation on education were increasingly manifested during the period of this report, 1942 thru 1945. Teachers and students of education whether graduate or undergraduate continued to enter the armed forces. Consequently, research in education and teacher training dropped. Educators were faced with major problems demanding immediate attention, and little or no time was available for study of such problems as the social status of the teacher. Objective investigations were fewer than in 1940-1942 but many subjective experience reports urged teachers to greater efforts in bearing their burdens (12, 37).

Data available on the social status of the teacher tend to group around one or another of the three following topics: (a) the teacher's life and personality; (b) training, tenure, and finances; (c) the teacher's relation to the community.

The Teacher's Life and Personality

Many authors held the opinion that the social status of the teacher is determined by the traits, character, and personality of the teacher (11, 19, 46). McPherson (27) reported some of the occupational habits which tend to give teachers a special personality. He found that teachers become careless in personal appearance. They are too often content to go along without displaying any originality in planning or conducting their work. They develop an exaggerated feeling of importance which induces a lack of consideration for the pupil as well as for adults. They become critical of the shortcomings of others and fail to recognize their own, and any adult who is "bossy" does not appeal either to youths or to adults. However, Vaeth (43) reported that a teacher who possesses a good academic background and a knowledge of subjectmatter together with an interest in students as individuals, who has a pleasing personality and a sense of equity and justice, and who uses self-control and displays consideration and tact will be regarded as a successful person.

Grinnell (18) reported remarks he had heard that illustrated further how the layman's opinion of the teacher was determined by the conduct

of the teacher. There are those successful classroom teachers who are capable but who refuse to expand into the community life, not because they devote all their time to classes, but because they are not interested in other people.

There is evidence that a small minority of persons change their opinions of teachers during postschool years. Bryan (7) asked 825 adult judges to select two of the best and two of the poorest teachers they had ever had, and to rate them as they would have rated them when they sat in the classrooms. The answers indicated that 90 percent of the teachers now considered best received the highest or next to the highest rating in retrospection. Less than 2 percent of the poorest teachers were credited with producing excellent results in retrospection. The desired qualities of a teacher are sincerity, impartiality, fairness, friendliness, cheerfulness, industry, good judgment, and ability to give clear explanations. The best way for a teacher to predict how pupils will feel about him in later years is to learn how they feel when they are in his classes. Bryan (7) concluded that the belief that maturity will cause individuals to look back and see teacher merit not appreciated in school days is largely an illusion.

Teachers in increasing numbers are joining professional organizations on their own initiative and subscribing to professional literature in order to improve personally as well as professionally (2). But, since some teachers do not manifest such interest and may teach as many as twenty-five or more years without making the effort to keep up to date in their field, he believes there is need for a vigorous organized program of in-service training.

The experience background of teachers in training in four state teachers colleges, as examined by Partridge (29), varied greatly among both men and women, with men having a slightly broader background. There were many who possessed a shallow verbal understanding of many things they would be expected to teach. Without a deliberate attempt to enrich deficient background, their entry into the teaching profession would produce several undesirable results.

In teachers as in others, reported Stewart (36), there are varying degrees of maladjustment, and the disturbance reveals itself in varying ways. A satisfactory adjustment of problems is essential to the teacher's happiness, and is of vital concern to those who come in contact with the teacher. Symonds (39) analyzed the autobiographies of fifty teachers to ascertain their needs and the factors responsible for development of these needs which, in turn, caused the individuals to select teaching. Symonds' (38) investigations further revealed that teachers were not able to formulate their problems clearly or to recognize and define them. In meeting the difficulties they recognized, the teachers took action by asserting their independence or by gaining an insight into and a better understanding of persons with whom they had to deal. Others resorted to hard work and to taking on new interests. Symonds advised teachers with problems to secure the aid of a friend or, preferably, a trained counselor.

In serious cases Symonds (40) suggested the following programs as a means of identifying and correcting the situations adversely affecting the teacher personally as well as professionally: (a) undergo a complete and thoro physical examination; (b) give constant attention to personal appearance; (c) adjust activities to keep up enthusiasm, interest, and satisfaction of accomplishment; (d) adjust living arrangements to be hospitable, wholesome, and self-respecting—to be those of a normal family; (e) use vacation periods for rest, relaxation, and recuperation; (f) undertake a program of professional study to increase competence and maintain morale; (g) develop avocational interests; (h) expand social and professional relationships.

In the final analysis Heikkinen (20) said that the status of a teacher is largely the teacher's responsibility, and that status is enjoyed or deserved, or else something would have been done about it.

Training, Tenure, and Finances

The aforementioned topics are treated elsewhere in this issue of the REVIEW. However, they do provide clues to the social status of the teacher, and for that reason mention of them is made in this chapter. Articles dealing with the effects of the war situation in teacher training, tenure, and salaries continued to appear during the period covered by this report. The treatises were concerned with obtaining replacements. As Kane (23) reported, the sudden desertion of the educational ranks by teachers going into industry indicates an unsatisfactory teaching setup (40). With the end of the war we will see the reconversion of the schools to peacetime status. Joyal (22) was of the opinion that after a period of readjustment there will then be a surplus of teachers, and that the selection and placement of them will present an opportunity with which educators must deal both boldly and wisely.

Many young people do not think of teaching as a desirable profession, and Stevens (35) reported their reasons for this attitude as follows: (a) education departments are often the weakest division in educational institutions; (b) salaries of teachers are not comparable to those of persons in other necessary services requiring the same or less professional training; (c) too many restrictions are placed on the social life of teachers; (d) too many teachers consider their work primarily as a means of making a living rather than as a profession; (e) childhood experiences with teachers have not inspired young people to enter the teaching profession.

The war situation not only seriously reduced the enrolment in teachers colleges but set up a heavy turnover within the teaching profession. The United States Office of Education (42), in a preliminary tabulation of reports from 338 city and county school systems giving the reasons why 11,000 teachers left the school system they were in between June and October 1942, reported one-half the men entered the armed forces and ap-

proximately half the women left either to accept a better position in another school system or to get married. Almost 30 percent of the women teachers who left went to a better paying teaching position but only 15 percent of the men who left went to a better teaching position. Teachers moved from rural and small city schools to larger city school systems. War industries drew heaviest from the larger city systems. The data further revealed that only a small percent of teachers stay in rural and small city systems until they retire, but in cities of 30,000 or more population, positions are considered by teachers as satisfactory for a life career.

The schools in Indiana (21) to August 1944, had suffered heavy teacher withdrawals ranging proportionally from 6 percent in cities of 100,000 population to 21 percent in cities under 5000 population. The breakdown of reasons for leaving the former positions are similar to those reported by the Office of Education (42).

The Teacher's Relations to the Community

Publications relating to the relations of the teacher to the community stressed two themes: one urging the teacher to become an active participant in community affairs (1, 8, 28, 45), and the other appealing to the community to grant teachers the same freedom in their personal lives as it permits other professional people (3, 16, 44).

Thomson (41) urged teachers to expand beyond the four walls of the classroom and to enrich their lives. After all, teachers are adults, and it becomes an adult to work with adults. Some opposition may be encountered, but each member of a community, including the teacher, must assume responsibility in civic affairs and cooperate with groups whose aim is to improve health, social, and economic conditions in the conservation of human and material resources. However, Bain (5) cautioned that teaching is the teacher's first consideration; civic affairs constitute an additional duty. This situation imposes upon the teacher the responsibility of being efficient on two levels. As teachers, they must work with young people, shaping the experiences children have and helping them interpret these experiences; as adult citizens, teachers must work with other adults in contributing to civic affairs as well as take advantage of opportunities to further their own work. Therefore, said Lyon (25) the teacher must not only radiate inspiration but must also seek it from others. Champlin (9) contended that the liberally educated teacher is capable of continuous growth. He said further that the liberally educated teacher recognizes there can be no substitute for scholarship in the school. Scholarship, personal contacts with informational experts, and sincere habits of profound study are prerequisites to liberalizing and stirring instruction of the master teacher. Teachers need both a professional and a liberal education.

Phillips (30) reported that the present-day tasks of schools are greater than they were fifty years ago as the schools are accepting the performance

of services which were at one time considered the responsibility of the home, the church, or the community. More active participation of teachers in educational planning, as members of school staffs and of professional organizations, would result in an improved program of education and greater respect for the importance of the school and teachers. The schools are taking an increased responsibility, said Bruce (6), for promoting understanding of and respect for the complex economic life of the community, and can be a very important factor in democratization of rural-urban relations.

Di Michael (13) recommended a definite program to improve the effectiveness and status of the school in the community, as follows: (a) encourage parent-teacher conferences; (b) invite parents to serve on school committees; (c) expand the school library to include books for the whole family; (d) cooperate with community agencies maintained by private, public, or church funds; (e) inaugurate a program of adult education.

Driscol (14) outlined a program for making the parent-teacher conference effective and Ryan (32) reported instances of the effectiveness of providing reference books for parents. Gans (15) believed that teacher status has been too commonly thought of in terms of salary, tenure, and retirement. Such needs are admittedly very real, but there are other factors necessary to obtain the status of satisfaction.

Gelanis (17) recognized the fact that persons are leaving teaching for industry because of more money, but he claimed many other normal and healthy persons are deserting the teaching profession to escape the dual code of conduct imposed upon them by the community. Kittle and Shannon (24) investigated the status of community teachers in Indiana. The questionnaire method was employed, and returns were sufficient to warrant belief that data were representative of rural and village schools thruout the state. Approximately one-fourth of the teachers of township schools were weekly or daily commuters; daily commuters outnumbered weekly commuters three to one. Commuting was more widespread in 1942-1943 than in prewar years. Commuting high-school teachers were twice as numerous as commuting elementary school teachers. In general, the daily commuters were single persons. Commuters remained in the profession as long as non-commuters, and tenure played no significant part in commuters' status. In two-thirds of the townships the public was indifferent toward the commuter. Their indifference was demonstrated further by their toleration of commuting, the teachers having commuted long enough to try out the public on the matter. In teaching, the commuter was rated as effective as the non-commuter, but in participation in school functions he was rated less favorably and in community functions much less favorably.

The McNair (26) report discussed the social status of teachers in England. Bagley (4), in commenting on the McNair Report, said that the enhancement of the social status of teachers in the lower schools is a prime condition of significant progress in public education, and that the

need of higher salaries cannot be minimized as contributing to this end. He pointed out, however, that there are reasons other than financial for shunning the teaching profession.

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Page citations are made to single pages; these are often the beginning of a chapter, section, or running discussion dealing with the topic.

FOREWORD

THIS issue follows closely the pattern of its predecessor on organization, administration, and supervision of education.

The previous issue contained a brief chapter on "Fundamental Conceptions" which reviewed Mort's and Cornell's research on "adaptability" and various studies of democracy in school administration. Presumably there have been no comparable researches during the past three years. However, this issue, particularly in Chapters IX and X, questions certain concepts of administrative relations that have been generally accepted. In view of the tasks confronting American education, a major need is for basic research that will thoroly examine the conceptual basis of public education and its relations to other agencies of government and organized society.

The previous issue contained a chapter on the "Supervision of Instruction." This issue limits the treatment of supervision to its organization. The author calls attention to the urgent need for research that comes to grips with the fundamental problems that flow from the changing philosophy of education in this country.

The chapter on cooperation between the school and other community agencies appears in this issue under the title, "School and Community Relationships." In this simpler phrase lies the key to the future success of public education. The days of comfortable isolation of the school from the remainder of community life are ended. The question now is how and to what purpose the school shall participate in community life. The need for fundamental research is urgent.

J. CAYCE MORRISON, *Chairman,*
Editorial Board

District Reorganization

WALTER C. REUSSER AND RAYMOND E. WOCHNER

Sᴄʜᴏᴏʟ ᴅɪsᴛʀɪᴄᴛ ʀᴇᴏʀɢᴀɴɪᴢᴀᴛɪᴏɴ received relatively more emphasis during the past three years than formerly in terms of the number of surveys that have considered this problem. Altho there was continued emphasis in general research on criteria, needs, and purposes of larger districts, more specific application of earlier research studies was made to conditions in the states. The concept of community-centered districts and the procedures for redistricting were clarified in certain applications to statewide conditions. Another interesting development was the research on local autonomy in city school districts.

Statewide Studies

Statewide studies on school district reorganization or improvement of present district organization were made in nine states, seven of which were "district" states and two "county unit" states. The Alabama (1) survey pointed out that altho many improvements had been made in administrative organization, the state still had too many administrative units with insufficient population and resources to provide adequate educational programs. There are in all 110 local administrative systems— sixty-seven county systems and forty-three independent city systems. Five counties had fewer than 1000 white pupils, fifteen cities had fewer than 1000 white pupils, and small enrolments were very common in the independent school systems. The survey staff recommended the merging in each county of all school systems in a centralized unit. The California Reconstruction and Reemployment Commission (6) proposed legislation for making local surveys and procedures for the unification of local school districts by a favorable vote of the people. Grieder (10) presented evidence of the need for larger administrative units in Colorado and outlined criteria and procedures for district reorganization. The Michigan Public Education Study Commission (12) recommended that districts of the first, second, and third classes (all cities of 10.000 population and over) be retained with but minor changes; that special charter districts be reorganized as districts of the third class unless they have a population of less than 10,000, and then as fourth-class districts; and that presently organized graded township, rural agricultural, primary and special-act districts of less than 10,000 population be organized as fourth-class districts. The report of the Nebraska Legislative Council (15) reviewed the need for redistricting and summarized some of the proposed plans that had been recommended for the state. The Report to the Legislature of South Dakota (19) recommended: first, the passage of a law permitting

any county to establish a reorganization committee to effect a more efficient organization of school facilities and districts in a county by reducing unnecessary schools, combining valuation districts, and eliminating low enrolment schools; second, the modification of the law to provide for a county plan of school organization for any county desiring such a plan. The West Virginia survey (21) recommended no changes in the basic county unit organization, but pointed out certain improvements in the administration of such units. In the state of Washington (4) the survey report indicated the progress of redistricting under the 1941 law. Reusser (16) pointed out the need for redistricting in Wyoming by showing the great variation in size, population, wealth, and school programs in the various districts, and suggested procedures for redistricting the state.

General Studies

The analysis of the implications that education is a state function and of the relationships between the state and the local agencies were the subject of several studies. Greene and Meadows (9) pointed out two significant recent trends: the tendency toward centralization of state support, control, and administration of education; and the increased minimum standards prescribed to safeguard the interests of the children of the state. Acceptable interrelationships would not permit the local units to usurp the authority and power of the state, or the state to stifle local initiative. A summary of the need for district reorganization and of the manner in which some states attempted to meet the need showed a variety of conditions and patterns in the different states.

The chapter entitled "Legal Structure," Mort (13) considered the legal fact of education as a state function and the principle that the power to modify school districts likewise resides in the state. He discussed the theory and legal status of home rule, the relationship of school government to municipal government, the separability of the finance structure and control structure, and the position of the courts in the structure of public education. Rosenfield (18) analyzed a number of court cases showing that school districts are considered instrumentalities of the state and that the state, under certain conditions, has authority to delegate the function of reforming districts by changing boundaries or annexing territory.

General reports by Holy (11) and the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems (20) emphasized the need for redistricting, some of the problems involved in different states, and criteria for organization of satisfactory administrative and attendance units.

Community-Centered Districts

The community-centered district appears to be the most popular form of school district reorganization. Butterworth (5) pointed out that a recent study advocated that the school unit be based upon the sociological com-

munity as the basis for organization. "It undertakes to lay out a school
district that includes the area within which people actually work to-
gether on various social and governmental problems." Greene and Mead-
ows (9) summarized several earlier studies to show that the development
of the unit on the basis of the community has grown in recent years.
Mulford (14) pointed out that recent discussions in Illinois emphasize the
merging of small rural districts into community-centered school systems.
The Michigan Public Education Commission (12), mentioned earlier,
recommended that districts should "be organized around closely related
urban, suburban, and rural educational, economic, and social interests
and relatively self-sufficient and permanent centers of population."

The planning agencies in Washington (22) recognized that a school
district should include "an area with interrelated and interdependent social,
economic, service, and cultural interests—an area with a fairly compact
population and a network of improved roads." It was discovered, that in
many instances, the service area of a high school comprised such a func-
tional unit contemplated by the state and local committees.

City Districts

Westby (23) studied eight city communities and eight independent
communities and sought to compare them relative to the school-community
relationship in each group. He found that the city communities were some-
what lower in community potential than were the independent ones, altho
not so much below as to make it improbable that fairly satisfactory
school-community relationships might be established. The study showed
also that the schools in the city communities were more closely associated
with such governmental agencies as the police, fire, and health departments,
churches and church-sponsored groups, social service agencies, libraries,
museums, zoos, industry, and business. The schools in the independent
communities had more parent groups, youth-centered groups, health and
recreational groups, art, music and dramatic, civic and service groups.
They also had more "Y's," teachers associations, bond drives and com-
munity chests, and more lay advisory groups than the city communities.

Mort (13) pointed out that the local home rule in the school system
usually operated on the level of the superintendent of schools in com-
munity districts, but in the large city the superintendent is too remote
from the influence of public opinion. He concluded that the solution to
the large district problem lies not in smaller districts, but in new rela-
tionships that build more home rule into the system and at the same
time maintain the advantages that come from large city systems.

Progress in Redistricting

In many states there appears to be a state of readiness for changes in
school district organization. Illustrations of this were noted in a Washing-
ton (3) progress report showing that in 1944 about 78 percent of the

estimated unnecessary districts had been eliminated and that these reorganization plans involved about 95 percent of the children. Mulford (14) showed the increased interest in redistricting in Illinois by presenting data to show that 93 of the 102 counties had voted to conduct countywide surveys. This was far beyond all expectations.

The need for redistricting as realized by large groups of the population was shown by Rogers (17), by The White House Conference (24), and by the American Association of School Administrators (2).

General Procedure for Redistricting

Altho recent studies showed some variations in the details of redistricting procedures, there was quite a widespread acceptance of two principles. The first is that there should be created by law a local or county redistricting committee composed of public-school personnel and laymen to study conditions in the locality or county, to make proposals and usually to hold public hearings, and to draft plans for redistricting. Frequently, plans are submitted to a state redistricting commission or board. The second principle is that of permitting the people of the proposed new district to vote on the proposal. Voting at large in the entire area of the new district was commonly specified. These procedures were contained in the laws affecting redistricting in California (6) and Washington (4). Recommendations of similar procedures were made in the studies for Colorado (10), Illinois (14), Michigan (12), and Wyoming (16).

Factors Favoring Reorganization

The emphasis on certain factors that tend to stimulate the reorganization of school districts was given by Greene and Meadows (9), Mulford (14), and Breckner (4). The most important of these factors is the realization on the part of increasing numbers of citizens that effective educational programs are possible only when administrative units provide enough children and adequate financial support. Strong educational leadership, state-aid plans that stimulate the creation of larger units, changes in legislation making it easier to form large districts, and the establishment of state requirements to be met by all schools are factors that favor district reorganization on a statewide basis.

Of more immediate impact in the local communities are such factors as the discontinuance of small schools, improved roads, teacher shortage, difficulties involved in high-school tuition, the demand for more vocational work, and the demand for economy in the schools.

Factors Retarding District Reorganization

The principal factors that appear to retard district reorganization are: (a) inadequate and cumbersome school district laws, (b) extreme dis-

trict loyalty and the fear that certain rights will be surrendered when larger districts are formed, (c) fear of increased local taxes with larger districts, (d) misunderstanding that larger districts mean discontinuance of many schools with corresponding increase in pupil transportation, (e) lack of leadership, and (f) fear that larger districts may destroy rural communities and reduce farm population. Studies by Greene and Meadows (9), Chisholm (7), and Holy (11) deal with factors retarding reorganization of school districts.

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CHAPTER II

Administrative Officers

WALTER C. REUSSER AND RAYMOND E. WOCHNER

THE PRIMARY EMPHASIS in the reports of research dealing with administrative officers centered around their training, their functions as professional heads of school systems, and their relations to boards of education. City school surveys, while not reviewed in this chapter, emphasize particularly the functions and relationships of administrative officers in terms of what they are and of what they should be in a given location. Two other important emphases involving administrative officers concerned salary trends and tenure during the war years.

Training and Selection of Administrators

The training and qualifications of the administrator were viewed with great concern in that they determined to a large extent the types of schools and thus the quality of the educational programs in the United States. Shannon (16) found that 73 percent of 1854 city superintendents who were members of the American Association of School Administrators during the school year 1941-42 had earned the master's degree. In a somewhat similar study Kardatske (7) found that 89 percent of the city, district, and county superintendents listed in *Who's Who in American Education* during the same year, 1941-42, had earned a master's degree. These two studies tend to indicate that the master's degree is considered by the superintendents included in these two studies to be the standard of academic training for the superintendent.

The training of a superintendent and his selection for an administrative position are closely related. The desirable features of his training were outlined for the undergraduate as well as for the graduate level by Henzlik (6). Morrison (11) minimized the attempt to select educational "experts" for superintendents in favor of the desire to select qualified executives. Reeder (15) and Meisseur (10) placed particular importance upon wise selection of administrative officers.

The Superintendent as Professional Head of the School System

The need for a qualified executive as professional head of the school system was indicated repeatedly. Mort (12) developed five psychological principles which the administrator must understand. They concerned transfer of training, individual difference of pupils, lifelike learning situations, the phenomena of growth, and interest as an indicator of readiness.

Mort (12) and McClure (9) cited the importance of planning by and leadership of the superintendent in order to preserve home rule. A sincere

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faith in the necessity of education and a willingness to engage in democratic planning were emphasized. Vredevoe (20) presented a similar conception of the superintendent's function in his regional study. The chief function emphasized here was that of coordination of the administrative activity so as to encourage cooperative, democratic performance.

It is the duty of the superintendent to explore, initiate, and to implement procedures in order to make it possible for each child and adult to attain the objectives of education, as viewed by the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems (17). The committee that reported on the survey of schools in Battle Creek, Michigan (3), placed administrative responsibility for the entire school unit on the superintendent but responsibility for the individual school unit on the principal. As such, the principal is not a subordinate administrative officer to staff officers in the central office but is advised and counseled by them. This report clarified the relationship of the superintendent and principal to each other by indicating that they should regard themselves as coparticipants in the development of policies.

Henzlik (6) indicated that, since over 80 percent of the organized communities of the United States are less than 2500 in population, the possibilities for securing a position as superintendent in a small community are several times those in larger urban cities. Since the administrative problems encountered in small communities are different from those in urban communities, he stressed the need for special emphasis upon the training of administrators for the small community.

The Superintendent's Relationship to His Board of Education

Most publications which dealt with this phase of the superintendent's work were in agreement that the superintendent should have exclusive responsibility for executive functions. The Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (2) listed "effectiveness" as the criterion for dividing duties, but agreed with the Southern States Work-Conference report (17) and the Battle Creek Committee (3) in making the superintendent wholly responsible for the executive functions. The latter report emphasized the need for a specific statement of rules and regulations of the board of education so that the superintendent might be aware of his position with the board. The Southern States Conference report (17) emphasized that as executive officer of the board, the school administrator must possess leadership ability in relation to the educational program and mutual understanding with respect to his working relationship with the board.

Qualifications of County Superintendents

The major emphasis in studies involving the county superintendent of schools concerned the improvement of his professional qualifications.

County superintendents must be differentiated with respect to their primary function in the administrative unit. The county superintendent may be the administrative head of the basic unit in the county-unit state or may serve in a more remote supervisory function in the state having the district or township as the basic administrative unit.

Altho Alabama (1) is generally classed as a county-unit state, its 110 local school administrative systems are composed of sixty-seven county systems and forty-three independent city systems. The study pointed out that minimum qualifications for county superintendents are written into law and must be observed, regardless of local legislation providing for the election of superintendents. The Alabama law provides for a minimum requirement which is equivalent to the requirements for the highest teacher's certificate based on the bachelor's degree. The report of the study recommended an equivalence to the master's degree with special work in educational administration and supervision.

In West Virginia (18) the present law requires qualifications which are comparable with those in Alabama: a certificate valid in West Virginia, a bachelor's degree including twelve semester hours in school administration and supervision, and at least five years of experience in public-school teaching or supervision. The survey committee in West Virginia recommended: (a) at least one year of graduate training at a recognized university, including at least twenty semester hours in school administration and supervision; (b) at least five years of experience in teaching, administration, or supervision; and (c) good character. This report indicated that approximately three-fourths of the county superintendents currently in office possessed these qualifications.

The California survey report (4) indicated that at the time there were no required professional qualifications for the county superintendent. The survey commission stressed the need for professionalizing the position. To do this they recommended that (a) the state board of education should determine the qualifications required of candidates for this office; (b) the state should contribute to the salary of the county superintendent; and (c) the administrative and supervisory responsibility of the county superintendent needed to be redefined.

Salary Trends

The most comprehensive study of salary trends was reported by the National Education Association (14). The data were collected thru the questionnaire method and included 1897 communities with a population of 2500 or more. One important fact established by the study was that the median salaries of administrators recovered more slowly between 1934 and 1944 than those of classroom teachers, and, in the case of superintendents in the larger cities, these medians are still below the 1930-31 level. The median of the salaries of superintendents in 1944-45 in communities of 2500-5000 population gained 31 percent over the median of

those in 1934-35. The gain in the median for this group in 1944-45 over the same for 1942-43 was 11 percent. This gain equaled the gain for superintendents in the 5000 to 10,000 population group and represented the greatest gain for the groups during this two-year period.

The Alabama report (1) made a salary comparison by indicating the average annual salary of the county superintendents as $3000 and that of the city superintendents, $3290. The report showed that the situation with respect to superintendents' salaries was no better in 1944 than in 1932 and that nineteen positions actually paid lower salaries in 1944 than they did sixteen years earlier.

Tenure Trends

Thompson (19) found in his study of the tenure of superintendents in 486 Minnesota schools that 30 percent of the superintendents were new to their positions during 1943-44, more than twice the normal prewar turnover. This study showed that the greatest turnover, 40 percent, was in the schools having ten or fewer teachers. However, it was revealed that the war had relatively little effect on the tenure of superintendents who served districts employing eleven teachers or more.

The Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (2) reported shorter tenure for school superintendents in small communities than for those in large communities, but called attention to the possibility for greater ease of transfer for superintendents in these smaller schools since 88 percent of the 16,752 incorporated communities in the United States in 1940 had a population of 5000 or less. However, it suggested the need for long-term contracts or continuing contracts, where the laws permit, as a means for encouraging longer tenure for the school superintendent.

General Studies

In an extensive study conducted by the National Education Association (14) the opinions of 1300 superintendents in communities with a population of 2500 or more were tabulated from a questionnaire relative to compulsory youth programs. Eighty-five percent of these superintendents favored a more extensive preparedness program than that in prewar years. Forty-eight percent of the superintendents favored a combination program consisting of some compulsory military training, some required non-military service intended to combine citizenship training with service to the nation on public projects, and required state and local camping programs. Almost 90 percent of the superintendents expressed a belief that national service, that is, non-military public projects, would stimulate to a varying degree some kind of totalitarian youth movement.

Grieder (5) proposed a three-point solution to the problem of the instability of the small town superintendency in the adoption of (a) statewide salary schedules, (b) statewide tenure, and (c) continuing contract

provisions. Weaver (21) and Kuenzli (8) presented devices and methods
for evaluating the administrator.

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The Board of Education

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THE GREATEST AMOUNT of the literature dealing with boards of education in the period covered by this REVIEW is to be found in publications designed as handbooks for schoolboard members, in articles discussing special problems with which schoolboards must deal, and in analyses of schoolboard practice of individual communities as reported in school surveys. These sources, with one exception, are not included in this chapter, because the handbooks and articles are not intended as research studies, and surveys are treated in Chapter VII of this volume. The one exception is the handbook, *School Boards in Action* (1).

Schoolboard Practices in Organization and Operation

Information concerning present practice of schoolboard organization and operation, and consensus as to what practices should be, is supplied by several studies (1, 2, 3, 6, 12, 13, 14). The chief study in this field is the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association (12) which supplied the basic data for *School Boards in Action* (1) and "America's School Boards" (6). It is based upon 3068 returns from 4343 questionnaires to school districts of all sizes. All states were represented in the replies, and while a larger percent of cities than small districts replied, the sampling was probably large enough to be representative. Some of the questions repeated those of Counts' study made in 1926, "Social Composition of Boards of Education." Others duplicated the U. S. Office of Education's study of school districts in 1940. Thus revelation of status and also of trends was possible from the data.

The following facts are indicative of findings presented:

1. The percent of women on boards of education is slightly lower than when Counts made his study in 1926.
2. Over-all median age of schoolboard members (48.5 years) is close to that found by Struble in 1922 and by Counts in 1926.
3. A small, consistent increase in median age of members parallels city size.
4. The median tenure for *superior* boards is somewhat longer than for *below-average* boards.
5. A shift from appointive to the elective system of selecting members of boards is becoming more apparent in cities with over 100,000 population.
6. There is a trend in city schoolboard elections toward separate school elections.
7. The percent of *below-average* boards with members selected by

wards is more than twice as large as the corresponding percent for *superior* boards.

8. In comparison with past studies there is a slight increase in length of term of office.
9. Among boards with *superior* ratings, the nonpartisan board has the advantage over boards elected on a partisan basis.
10. The percent of noncompensated boards is higher in the *superior* group than for the *below-average* districts.
11. In cities with over 30,000 there has been an increase since 1917 in the number of boards having not more than nine members.
12. The trend to abolish standing committees continues. A slight advantage (in regard to *superior* rating) lies with boards having no standing committees.
13. The number of board meetings, both regular and special, increases consistently with size of city.
14. The trend continues toward open meetings. In districts in which some meetings are open and some closed, approximately two of every three are open to the public.
15. City and non-city boards rated *superior* more often permit the superintendent to attend meetings than those boards rated *below-average*.
16. The larger the city the higher the percent of schoolboards which seek the advice of teachers on personnel decisions (12).

Campbell's articles (2, 3) are based upon his unpublished dissertation at Stanford University, in which he examined the voting records of school-board members in twelve cities for ten years on legislation of social importance and related them to the socio-economic status of the board members. He arrived at the following conclusions as a result of his study:

1. The fifteen issues included many important educational problems facing schoolboards.
2. The schoolboards in the twelve cities established a legislative record definitely affirmative toward the issues involved.
3. There was a positive, altho not a high relationship, between the percent of negative decisions and the financial ability of the cities.
4. Schoolboard members with a lower percent of negative decisions on the fifteen issues tended to be more competent than the others.
5. There was little or no relationship between certain socio-economic factors and schoolboard competence.
6. It would appear that factors other than those of a socio-economic nature determined the competence of schoolboard members.

Schoolboard Hearings

Schoolboard hearings, an increasingly important procedure in dealing with personnel problems, are treated in two studies (11, 17). The NEA *Research Bulletin* (11) traces trends in court decisions, provides citations, and tabulates essentials of a fair hearing prescribed by teacher tenure laws. Sears (17), altho providing but few citations, summarizes the develop-

ment of hearings as a procedure and the variations in laws, but he devotes major attention to indicating the function and methods of hearings.

Rosenfield (15, 16), using citations from nine court cases in 1942-43, noted that when schoolboard members go to court they are generally involved in a contest regarding the right to hold office. From his analysis of twenty other court cases he concludes that, as a general rule, and in the absence of statutory restrictions, schoolboards have the authority to employ attorneys.

Schoolboards in Retrospect

Information concerning early beginnings of schoolboards in America is supplied in a series of three articles by Leipold (8, 9, 10), altho the sources and the procedures for selection of the facts used are not given in the articles.

Grieder and Romine's study, "A Half Century of State School Board Associations" (4), was based upon correspondence with officers of state schoolboard associations. From this correspondence they composed a table showing the date of founding, approximate percent of boards enrolled, and the annual income of state schoolboard associations in 1944. Thirty-three states have associations. Idaho was the last state to found one (1942). The study shows evidence of the growing interest among laymen in public education, the over-all goal being better schools. Nine periodicals are published, circulation ranges from less than 1000 to more than 11,000. The major topics most generally included in periodicals are as follows: (a) school laws and legislation; (b) administration, finance, insurance, and taxation; (c) personnel problems, salaries, tenure, and retirement; (d) school and the war; (e) instructional programs and activities; (f) state and federal aid; (g) schoolboard duties, policies, and procedures; and (h) miscellaneous articles of educational interest.

Definite achievements that schoolboard associations have effected were stated as follows: (a) better school legislation; (b) increased state aid; (c) reorganization of administrative units; (d) increased salaries for teachers and retirement provisions; (e) increased efficiency and effectiveness of board members; (f) better accounting and insurance programs; (g) longer school terms or more years of schooling.

Public Relationships

Kelly (7), using a questionnaire of 260 questions, filled in during an interview with each of twenty-two school superintendents in Illinois, sought to discover methods employed by boards of education and superintendents in the six areas of relations with the public, namely: (a) informing schoolboard members; (b) informing the public; (c) contacts with the public; (d) information from the public; (e) use of school facilities; (f) cooperation with other governmental agencies. As would be expected,

varied procedures were found in practice, some of which are noted briefly in the summary of the study.

The relationship of schoolboards to public libraries in Ohio was surveyed by Herrick (5). He utilized questionnaire data, annual reports of the state superintendent of public instruction, annual reports of the state librarian and state library commission, attorney general's decisions, court cases, and other sources to discover the types and extensiveness of cooperation and coordination of school and public libraries in Ohio. His findings included the indication of many ways in which closer association is possible, the disinclination of school and library personnel toward unified control, and rather general approval of cooperation thru a joint committee of school and library personnel, both on the state level and in local communities.

Systematic Study by Boards of Education

Procedures for school authorities to use in studying the educational needs of the community were outlined in a manual entitled *Problems Confronting Boards of Education* (18). While it is not a research document, it provides work sheets which school or community groups may use in collecting data basic to understanding the existing school and community conditions and for projecting a program which would move forward toward a desired program of education for that community. The outline points out the facts and judgments needed to face the problems ahead in relation to these four main questions: (a) What will the community be like by 1950? (b) What should education be like by 1950? (c) What educational deficiencies are indicated? and (d) How to move from the present to the desired program? As an instrument to aid systematic study of school and community problems this is usable for many school districts.

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CHAPTER IV

Internal Organization of Schools and School Systems

HENRY J. OTTO

THIS SECTION summarizes studies which included organizational features at both elementary- and secondary-school levels.

Chapters 2 and 3 of Part II of the Forty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (34) dealt with "Changes Needed in School Organization to Provide for Special Groups" and "Internal Organization of a Local School System." The treatment in the first of these chapters was built around: (a) provisions for the care and training of pre-school children, (b) provisions for exceptional children in the regularly organized schools, (c) problems of school organization resulting from migration, (d) children and youth in rural and sparsely settled areas, (e) changes in school organization needed to provide educational opportunities for adults, and (f) the organization of vocational education for youth and adults. Chapter 3 is addressed to the "Organization of Services and Staff" and the following four questions relating to internal organization: (a) Should the local school organization include a nursery school? (b) Should the elementary school be divided into a lower unit and an upper unit? (c) Should grades seven and eight be included in the elementary school or in the secondary school? (d) Should grades thirteen and fourteen be included in the secondary school?

Little (25) completed a survey of the number, distribution, age-grade status, and attendance of Spanish-speaking children in Texas in which he found that there were 260,759 school-age children of Latin-American descent in Texas. This number was 20.4 percent of the total white scholastic population in 1942-43. Spanish-speaking scholastics were found in 238 of the 254 counties in Texas. Only 53 percent of these children, aged six to seventeen, inclusive, were enrolled in school and 68 percent of those enrolled in the public schools were in the first three grades.

Quigley's (42) study to determine the extent to which the public and Catholic schools in Pennsylvania were providing an adequate health program showed that daily health inspection fell far below accepted standards. Periodic medical examinations and health services were found to be adequate in the first-class districts of Pittsburgh and Philadelphia, fairly adequate in the second-class districts, and woefully inadequate in the third- and fourth-class districts. Catholic schools in each type of district rated on a par with the public schools.

Elementary Schools—Surveys and Appraisal Instruments

Several types of surveys were made during this three-year period. Fletcher (11) made a broad study of the role of the state in the administra-

tion of elementary education in which he (a) summarized recent studies of control and leadership activities at the state level, (b) made an analysis of the school laws of the forty-eight states to determine the subjects which were prescribed in 1943 for instruction in the elementary schools, (c) made an analysis of the requirements for accreditation in the twenty-three states which in 1943 had official state procedures for accrediting elementary schools, and (d) analyzed the state controls evident in the accounting systems (annual report forms) used in the forty-eight states.

Huffman (18) analyzed news items found in the issues of *The Nation's Schools, The School Executive, The American School Board Journal,* and *The Elementary School Journal* for the years 1924 to 1944 to ascertain trends and changes in elementary-school organization and administration. Otto (38) completed a comprehensive survey, made by means of a thirty-five-page questionnaire. The study included returns from 532 elementary schools of all sizes from every state except Delaware and South Carolina: Nine states were represented by more than ten schools; 200 of the 532 schools were from Texas, and forty-six were college campus demonstration schools. The survey covered practically every phase of the organization and management of elementary schools. At various points in the report comparisons are made between the 200 Texas and 286 non-Texas public schools and between the forty-six college campus schools and the 286 non-Texas public schools.

Surveys of given school systems included a history of parochial-elementary education in the diocese of Trenton, New Jersey (52); appraisal of elementary education in Red Bank, New Jersey (66), Winchester, Massachusetts (13), Highland Park, Illinois (58), San Francisco, California (48), and a statewide survey in Alabama (49).

Three handbooks of score cards for the appraisal of elementary schools were prepared. Fisher (10) developed a graph-checklist for appraising elementary-school plants. Herrick (17) made available a mimeographed guide for appraising elementary-school practices, and the Texas State Department of Education (56) published an eighty-five-page handbook for the appraisal of elementary schools. The latter publication is the most comprehensive device for the evaluation of elementary schools that has been developed.

Articulation

Studies dealing with articulation have been almost nonexistent during the past fifteen years, so that the study by Speer (51) sheds current light on an ever-present problem. By the use of questionnaires to pupils, parents, and teachers, Speer studied the nature of articulation problems in the school systems of Randall and Swisher counties in Texas. Randall county has a system of bus transportation which makes the school system equivalent to a county unit system. In Swisher county there is a centrally located district which operates a twelve-grade program; this district is surrounded

by nineteen small rural districts, each operating only an eight-grade ele-
mentary school. The major findings were: (a) the percent of accelerated,
retarded, and normal-progress pupils was almost identical for the two coun-
ties; (b) approximately two-thirds of the acceleration (about 30 percent
of all pupils) was due to the transition to the twelve-grade system in the
state; (c) the percent of pupils having difficulty in the various subjects was
approximately the same for the two counties; (d) entering school was con-
fusing for 24 percent of Randall county and 31 percent of Swisher county
pupils; (e) only 11 percent of Randall county and 8 percent of Swisher
county pupils had attended the same school for as long as three years; (f)
frequency of changing schools had no significant relationship to retarda-
tion or acceleration; (g) in Randall county pupils and parents identified
the first grade as the most difficult; in Swisher county grades 5, 6, and 7
were named as the most difficult; (h) beginning departmental work and
beginning high school were named by 12 percent of Randall county and 17
percent of Swisher county pupils as very confusing; parents did not recog-
nize these points as creating special adjustment problems for their chil-
dren; and (i) in general, in these two situations, type of school organiza-
tion appeared to be unrelated to the scope and nature of articulation
problems.

Departmentalization of Instruction

The survey by Otto (38) showed that departmental instruction in some
degree was reported for 66 percent of the 532 schools. The grade level
at which departmentalization begins ranged from kindergarten to grade
eight. In 55 percent of the schools for which departmentalization was
reported (or 36 percent of all schools) such departmentalization begins in
the first grade. Some departmental teaching was found in 16 percent of
the two-teacher schools. There were no statistically significant differences
between the extent of departmentalization in the 200 Texas, 286 non-Texas,
and the forty-six college campus demonstration schools.

The surveys by Huffman (18) and Prince (39, 40) show that the extent
of departmentalization in elementary schools is being reduced, both in
terms of the number of schools incorporating the practice and in the
degree of its use within a given school. Prince had sent questionnaires to
200 city school systems in 1941 and again in 1945, to the 154 from which
replies had been received in 1941. Sixty-eight percent of the schools repre-
sented had discontinued entirely or decreased the amount of depart-
mentalization. The most pronounced drift away from departmentalization
was in the 50,000 to 100,000 population group.

Rouse (44) used the observation and interview methods to determine
what observable differences, if any, existed in the program of school life
in the fourth and fifth grades in twenty departmentalized and twenty non-
departmentalized elementary schools. The study was focused upon (a) the
scope of the school curriculum, (b) the general pattern of curriculum

organization, (c) the way the program of school life was administered thru curriculum practices, and (d) the procedures used in classroom teaching. Fourteen statistically significant differences were found between the practices for the two groups of schools. Each group had seven differences in its favor, but only one of those favoring the departmentalized group was approved by specialists in elementary education, while all seven differences favoring the nondepartmentalized group were approved by the specialists.

Pupil Progress

Studies by Wallin (61) and Roberts (43) showed that teachers are by no means agreed upon the advisability of regular progress for practically all pupils. Wallin secured the reactions of fifty-eight teachers regarding automatic promotion for mentally retarded pupils; only 41.3 percent favored the idea, half of whom favored it with reservations. Roberts studied the attitudes of teachers thruout the Gary, Indiana, school system toward the plan of pupil progress which had been adopted two years earlier. During the two years of operation of the plan no significant changes had occurred in the percent of failures in the schools; only half of the teachers believed that the new plan would improve the situation.

Bentall (3) studied the various factors present in the failure and conditional promotion of 320 pupils of normal intelligence in grades three thru six in the public schools of Grand Rapids, Michigan. Sandin (47) made comparisons between 227 regular-progress and 139 slow-progress children on the basis of selected characteristics of social adjustment, behavior, and attitudes. The findings of Sandin's study indicate that non-promotion contributed in bringing about a situation in which the differences between regularly promoted children and their slow-progress classmates constituted a barrier to good social relations. The total findings in this study combine to show that the slow-progress children were less favorably adjusted socially in their class groups than were their classmates, that they exhibited behavior and attitudes which left much to be desired and which indicated that for most of them school life was not a happy one.

Records and Reports

The U. S. Office of Education (59) published the results of a nationwide survey of types of cumulative record systems. The 1230 cities and 544 counties included in the study reported a total of 2515 cumulative record systems; 472 cities and 169 counties had a combined elementary- and secondary-school record system; the others had separate records for the elementary and secondary school. The report provides a detailed analysis of the content of the record systems in use. Leipold (24) provided a sketchy report of a questionnaire study on records and pupil accounting in a sampling of cities with populations of 50,000 and over.

The use of the report card as an aid in public relations was studied by

Green (14), while Ojemann and McCandless (37) experimented with the "usual type" and an "experimental-type" report which suggested to parents the possible factors which caused the behavior that was judged unsatisfactory. The experimental reports were found to be definitely more helpful than the traditional type.

Miner (28) analyzed the home contacts being made by the teachers in an elementary school in Monroe, Michigan, and then developed a manual for home visitation. Hamalainen (15) reported a study based upon an analysis of 1803 anecdotes on 119 pupils recorded by six teachers during a three-months' period. The major findings were: (a) teachers were able to judge the social relations of their pupils to a substantial degree after using the anecdotal records; (b) class size (from seventeen to twenty-eight) was no deterrent to the number of anecdotes recorded; (c) teachers who have an exceptionally large number of classes and meet them infrequently will be unable to record many anecdotes; (d) the success of the anecdotal record is dependent upon the outlook and background of the teacher; (e) the anecdotal record is dependent upon the type of program under which the teacher works; and (f) the anecdotal record method must be regarded as separate from observational methods used by research workers.

Curriculum Experiments Affecting Organization

Russell (45) appraised a plan of interclass grouping for reading instruction in grades 4, 5, and 6 in the San Francisco public schools. The plan is known locally as "circling." Instead of the usual grouping within one class, "circling" means that a considerable number of pupils in the grades actually change rooms and teachers during the reading periods. The different classes divide into three groups: high, average, and low reading abilities. Test results showed no reliable differences between the "circling" and "noncircling" groups in terms of pupil achievement.

Wrightstone (65) summarized the findings of two separate groups which appraised the experiment with the activity program in the New York City schools. Wrightstone concluded, "The results of the evaluation of both the Advisory Committee and the State Education Department show that the activity program was as effective as the longer established program in developing children's mastery of fundamental knowledges and skills, that it was more effective in developing children's attitudes, interests, social behavior, ability to think, and ability to work on their own initiative. As a result of these findings, the major recommendation was that the program as developed in the six-year experiment should be continued and should be extended to other schools in the city as rapidly as is consistent with the spirit of the program." (p. 257).

Newell (35) endeavored to test the relationship between class size and the adaptability of school to the development or adoption of newer practices. He found that degree and rate of adaptability were definitely favored by smaller classes.

Herr (16) conducted a two-year experiment to determine the effectiveness of providing non-English speaking five-year-olds with a year of pre-first grade instruction in English before they enter the regular program of reading instruction in the first grade. One hundred five-year-olds were compared with one hundred pupils who started school at age six. The experiment showed the unquestioned value of the extra year of instruction.

The Elementary-School Principalship

Two studies were reported on the professional status of elementary-school principals. The New York State Association of Elementary Principals repeated in 1941 a survey which had been made some years ago (54). In 1941, 69 percent of the elementary principals in New York State held college degrees and 54 percent had either a master's or a doctor's degree. Leipold (23) sent 300 questionnaires to elementary principals in sixty-five cities having a population of 50,000 and over to determine (a) which of certain duties are delegated to the principal as his functions, what is the principal's role in performing these functions, and to what extent the principal exercises initiatory power concerning these functions; and (b) what tendency there has been during recent years for these functions to shift from one official to another, what part the principal plays in determining the policy of the school system as well as that of his own school, the relative importance of committees in determining school policy, and to what extent the influence of the principal is felt in all of the activities of the school. Ten areas of activities were included. His general conclusion was that the reports were encouraging and that elementary-school principals are "taking their place in the sun."

Surveys of basic salary schedules for principals in elementary and secondary schools were made of 101 school systems in cities of 30,000 to 100,000 in population (31) and of 70 school systems in cities of more than 100,000 in population (32).

Information on state certification of elementary-school principals was brought up to date (30, 33). Of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia, twenty states (including the District of Columbia) *require* elementary-school principals to hold a clearly defined special certificate in addition to a typical teacher's certificate; in seven other states a special principal's certificate is provided for by law but at present the certificate is not *mandatory*. In one additional state (Texas) a statement of approval is issued by the state accrediting committee, but it is not required by law.

Secondary Schools[1]—General Studies

The last volume of the reports on the eight-year study of high school and college relations sponsored by the Progressive Education Association describes the changes made in the thirty cooperating secondary schools

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[1] Robert C. Hammock of the University of Texas assisted in preparing the bibliography for this section.

(41). Implications for organization are inherent in the findings of the study which are set forth in the following statement: "Graduates of the thirty schools did as well as the comparison group in every measure of scholastic competence, and in many aspects of development which are more important than marks, they did better. The further a school departed from the traditional college preparatory program, the better was the record of its graduates. Thus it was proved that the traditional college entrance examinations are no longer necessary to insure adequate preparation for college." (p. 17).

The results of another curriculum experiment which has broad implications for organization was summarized by MacConnell (26). The "New School" in Evanston (Illinois) Township High School was organized in 1937 and was operated jointly by Northwestern University and Evanston Township High School until June 1942, when Northwestern withdrew. Since then it has been operated by Evanston Township High School with little change of purpose and general organization. MacConnell's article summarizes an appraisal of the "New School" based on data pertaining to "New School" graduates of 1941, 1942, and 1943. In addition, the school has been evaluated twice by a committee of parents. The results of the several appraisals were very favorable to the new program.

Baker's study (1) of effective secondary-school management resulted in the development of four criteria and thirty-eight specifications for appraising secondary-school management. McMillan's study (27) of the relationship between current expenditures and educational adaptability in selected secondary schools was not available for review when this summary was being prepared. Witham's analysis (64) of data from the Biennial Survey of Education, 1937-38, revealed that the average enrolment in the 24,590 high schools was 301.8 pupils but the median-sized high school in the United States had 133 pupils. He also compared high-school size with holding power, number of school years completed by students, per pupil costs, and adequacy of supervision.

The Junior High School

Junior high-school organization is affected by changes in the organization of elementary schools and senior high schools. Knight (19) and Barnes (2) presented data on the history and the future of the junior high school. Koos (22) provided a comparison of seventeen four-year and fifty-one three-year junior high schools. The general conclusion from this comparison was that the four-year junior high school is a better unit than the three-year school, which, in turn, holds an established superiority when compared with the older 8-4 plan. The four-year junior high school is the inescapable companion of the four-year junior college.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals published (29) the results of a questionnaire study of time use in forty-three junior high schools. In the study information was sought on ten questions pertaining to time use, curriculum organization, and programming.

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The Junior College

The junior college movement is precipitating major changes in the organization of the senior high school. Eells (9) reported on the status of junior colleges in the United States. White (62) presented the results of a study of the Iowa school systems maintaining junior colleges. He found (a) that in all ten school systems faculty members were appointed by the board of education upon recommendation of the superintendent of schools, (b) that procedure in the assignment to classes varied according to the administrative pattern employed; in five instances the high school and the junior college were administered directly by the same officer; in the other five systems a "dual administration" prevailed, (c) that the officers responsible for supervision varied exactly as the administrative pattern, (d) that excellence of faculty was much better in the situations in which there was a high degree of association between the high school and the junior college, and (e) that an enrolment of 650 to 700 is essential before an independent faculty is justified in a junior college.

In one of Koos' reports (21) he drew illustratively from the evidence compiled for a large-scale inquiry concerning the organizational relationships of junior colleges and high schools. The four-year junior colleges ranked highest, the "associated" junior colleges ranked second, and the separate junior colleges ranked lowest in all of the following items: (a) the extent to which students in grade twelve included courses at the college level in their programs, (b) on retention and distribution of junior college students, (c) on staff qualifications and assignments, (d) on specialized facilities in use, and (e) on the cost of administration and supervision.

Koos (20) also gave a final report on the Kansas City junior college experiment. Koos concluded, "It may be said in conclusion that, on the whole, the experiment has contributed significantly to understanding of and experience with problems in the area of organizational relationships of high school and junior college. . . . The experiment suggests the feasibility of a two-track junior college; that is, a four-year junior college and a carefully integrated three-year junior college for superior students, with provision for convenient transfer from the four-year to the three-year track, and vice versa."

Instructional Practices Affecting Organization

Trump (57) undertook a survey and comprehensive appraisal of high-school extracurriculum activities in high schools in the twenty states which comprise the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Wilkinson (63) found that school marks of high-school students were not materially affected by participation in extracurriculum activities.

Ryder (46) compared the achievement in various high-school subjects of nearly 1000 high-school pupils taught by sixty-seven student teachers, paired with other pupils in the same subjects and classes taught by regu-

larly employed teachers. He found (a) that the difference in achievement between the group taught by student teachers and the matched pupils taught by the regular teachers was very small; the difference, which was not statistically significant, was in favor of those taught by student teachers, (b) that the pupils in the lower fourth in initial achievement did better work under the student teachers than under regular teachers; the difference was statistically significant, and (c) that pupils in the high-est fourth in initial achievement learned just as much under student teach-ers as under regular teachers.

Duell and Kenet (6) found that summer high-school students, as com-pared to regular high-school students, were older and more variable in chronological and mental age, had less initial knowledge, were superior to students on whom the test norms had been developed, and showed super-ior gain in achievement during the term.

Oeschger (36) found an experiment with school gardens in a junior high school valuable from the standpoint of social and economic values. Vander-lip (60) described the role of the student council in secondary schools and developed five criteria and fifty-four specifications for appraising any given student council.

Departments within the High School

Best (4) completed a survey of present practices and developed stand-ards for use in planning vocal and instrumental music rooms and equip-ment for secondary schools. Sutherland (55) made (a) an analysis of 192 unsuccessful departments of vocational agriculture in fifteen states to deter-mine the major reasons why departments fail, (b) a detailed study of a number of successful departments of vocational agriculture in California, and (c) conducted severance interviews thru personal letters with twenty-five men who had been successful teachers of vocational agriculture but who had resigned their positions to enter other fields of work. The study was concluded with an outline of eleven criteria for use in California.

The Secondary-School Principalship

Two studies dealt with the position of assistant principal. Boardman, Gran, and Holt (5) secured questionnaire returns from twenty-one of thirty-one assistant principals in Wisconsin high schools of 600 or more enrolment and from thirty-five of the thirty-six assistant principals in Min-nesota high schools of 500 or more enrolment. Sullivan's study (53) included assistant principals in elementary, junior, and senior high schools in ninety-two cities with populations of 100,000 or more. She found (a) that in the senior high schools the position of assistant principal did not exist in eight of the cities and that the position carried thirteen different titles in the other eighty-four cities, (b) that the position carried sixteen different titles in the forty-two cities in which it existed in the junior high

schools, and (c) that the position carried sixteen different titles in the forty-nine cities in which the position existed in the elementary schools. Other findings pertained to the duties of the assistant principals.

Flury (12) assayed the duties, responsibilities, and rights attached to the high-school principalship in New Jersey by law, and, in specific terms, the actual duties and responsibilities which New Jersey high-school principals reported were completely, or partially, theirs. He found that the high school and the high-school principal are recognized in New Jersey law. In the main, the specific duties and powers are to be found in the statutes, the rules and regulations of the state board of education, the rules of local schoolboards, and the directives of the school superintendents. In matters of policy-forming, the principals claimed that they bore a considerable share of the responsibility. Notable exceptions to this were such matters as (a) selection of teachers, (b) determination of teachers' salaries, and (c) the organization of transportation and cafeteria service.

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CHAPTER V

School and Community Relationships

WILLIAM A. YEAGER

PUBLIC-SCHOOL RELATIONS as a recognized function of public-school administration appears to be growing rapidly in importance, if one can judge by the voluminous literature appearing within the past few years. There is an increasing sensitivity to the importance of the home and the community as essential aspects of the educational process. World War II undoubtedly proved a great stimulus to this movement, altho public-school relations as an educational function had been making great stride in the years immediately preceding.

It has been difficult to separate, with any degree of finality, material which might be classed definitely as research and reports which consist principally of description of practice. In describing practice there have been attempts to include some objective material as supporting evidence. Some articles have been included here because of their uniqueness in indicating the developing scope of public-school relations. Of significance is the fact that research, in the form of doctorate dissertations, is appearing more frequently, pointing out the emergence and application of definite technics in the field of public-school relations. The large number of references developed for this chapter emphasized the growing significance of this administrative function.

Purpose in Public-School Relations

Outstanding in the list of references examined is the earnest effort of many writers to point out the part the school has to play in building a better society. Berkson (10) discussed the problem of relating the school to social changes. MacConnell, Melby, and Arndt (71) believe that new schools are essential for a new culture in which the relations of parents and community play a large part. *The School and the Urban Community* (99) was the theme of the Eleventh Annual Conference of the administrative officers of public and private schools (University of Chicago), in which numerous school-urban community problems were discussed. Great emphasis has been laid on the cooperative principle in education (15, 37, 67, 96) in which the ends of education can be better achieved thru working together. Tyler (111) points out the responsibility of the school for the improvement of American life, Price (96) in educational planning, Blackwell (13) in bringing about better community understanding. Shaner (105) in a study of the legislative control of the elementary school curriculum points out the influence of community organization on the program of the public school.

Further evidence of the place and function of public-school relations in education is shown by Levy (68) for a state, Harlow (46) in war and peace, Harral (47) in higher education, and Burnett (22) who developed a guide book to a new career, namely, public relations. Broughton (17), too, points out the significance of a career in this field. Burnett (22) sums up the matter as follows: "Know yourself and your public. First learn all available facts and opinions. Put yourself in the public's place. Then develop an intelligent program for reaching goals of common interest. . . ."

Probably the most significant characteristic of American social life is its home and community life. Communities are formed when the varying interests of families and individuals merge. As originally established schools tended to lie close to the people of the community. Magee (72), in an unusual style, has shown this community interest in the early public schools. Much literature has appeared tending to define and characterize the community, especially in relation to the public schools. Cook (28) deals generally with the democratic processes in social planning. Morgan (81) points out the primary significance of the small community. The community's resources, both natural and human, have received much attention. Haan (45) and Hoover (54) pointed out this role and developed technics to study community resources. The need for studying the local community has been emphasized (34, 109). Many communities are studying intercultural problems as illustrated in Philadelphia (85). Public participation in educational planning as emphasized by Miller (79) and Loder (69), are illustrative of this modern approach in education.

Policies and Procedures

By far the largest number of references examined pertain to policies and procedures in the administration of public-school relations. Here again it has been difficult to classify the studies. An outstanding book in this group is *Today's Techniques* (101) edited by Rice, based on a poll of 300 educators and reported by sixty-eight specialists in the field of public-school relations. The more successful procedures are presented thru various approaches. Of equal importance and similarly treated is the symposium *School and Community* (90) edited by Olsen.

Most of the references in this section pertain to specific technics reported as successful in practice. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has been interested among other problems in work experience, employment, and the mobilization of community counseling services for youth (16, 53, 87). Porch (95) reports a successful technic for a career conference in secondary schools.

Studies of immediate home-school contacts thru the pupils themselves, one of the oldest public-relations problems, continue to make their appearance. Outstanding in this group of studies is that of Snoke (107) who studied various home-school contacts thru pupil media. Van Loan and Williams (113) outlined principles for progress reports. Other references

had to do with home work (70), parent-teacher conferences (62) and school visitation (106).

The forum, much emphasized in recent years as a valuable technic in public-school relations, received mention by Campbell (23) and Kempfer (64). There is considerable emphasis on the use of accepted technics to further school enterprises and needs, as explaining school needs (24), post-war planning (18), better budgets (60), and high-school problems (93).

The superintendent's report is one of the oldest public-school relations' instruments and is sufficiently significant to be required by law in many states. Great progress has been made in the development of the superintendent's report since Neale's study in 1921 and Clark's in 1931. Irons (58) used these studies as a point of departure and indicated current and preferred reporting practices in the city school superintendent's annual report. Major factors in order of significance were found to be address, development of pupils, timeliness, use, completeness, understanding, ability, unification, and legibility. The chief functions of the report are interpretative, appraisal, stimulative, and archival.

Programs

The development of carefully planned programs of public-school relations is evidenced thru a copious literature on the subject, most of which is descriptive in character. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals (6, 33, 88) reports a series of public-relations programs having focal interests such as health, work programs, and the school alumni. Programs intended to combat the evils of juvenile delinquency are frequently reported.

Public-school relations have much in common with programs of adult education. Adams (1) reports a "war institute" for adults carried on in cooperation with Yale University. Emphasis is laid on joint school and community planning illustrated by Grieder (44) and Howton and Sims (55). White, in his dissertation (117), studied a program of orientation for parents of high-school children, while Knoblauch (66) studied the public-relations services of a selected group of America city school systems. The widely heralded Springfield Plan as reported by Chatto and Halligan (26) contains many items of interest in public-school relations.

Personnel

Programs of public-school relations must depend for their success on adequately prepared and interested school personnel. Several studies have been made during this period pointing out the place and function of teachers, principals, and superintendents. Bishop (12) made a significant study of the role of the teacher in a public-school relations program. Farley (38) observes that the teacher fills a key position in it. Of significance is a study conducted by the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel

(American Council on Education) (2) on helping teachers understand home and family life.

The concept of the visiting teacher service has grown in importance since its inception in 1906. Miller (78) studied its status and administrative relationships and found that seventy-two cities in twenty-seven states had such an organized service. Worth (118) terms this service a "home-school coordinator," and stressed the fact that 80 percent of the services of child guidance clinics are to be found in larger cities.

The school administrator's function in public-school relations is emphasized by Reavis (98) and Walker (114). Hubbard (57) points out the need for democratic participation of all school personnel in public-school relations, as Broughton (17) reveals its excellent career opportunities.

Outstanding among the researches in the personnel field is that of Hickey (50), who studied both personnel and organization for the direction of public-school relations in eighty-three cities of the United States. He found six types: (a) superintendent of schools type as most predominant, (57.9 percent); (b) administrative staff officer type, (21.7 percent); (c) full-time director type, (12 percent); (d) principal type in which the principal directs the school district program as a whole; (e) principal type in which the principal directs the program of a particular school-community, and (f) teacher-committee type working under the direction, or with the assistance of, the superintendent of schools.

Public Opinion and Publicity

Reusser in the October 1943 issue of the REVIEW (p. 365) called attention to the fact that "a sound public-relations program rests upon an intelligent understanding of public opinion and its interpretation." This statement continues to grow in importance as one notes measures of public opinion thru such instruments as the Gallup poll. Cantril (25) made an appraisal of research technics purporting to measure public opinion. Fisk (41) shows that public opinion can be molded thru a dynamic program of enlightenment. Childs (27), in a study published in London, has several sections devoted to an analysis of public opinion of interest to school people. Significant contributions to the measurement of public opinion in a school district using generally known technics were made by Mullett (84), whose study can be repeated in any school district, and by Uhler (112).

School publicity is an instrumentality of public-school relations and must not be confused with the broader term "educational interpretation." Perhaps the most significant book appearing in this field is that of Fine (39) written by an outstanding journalist. It is an excellent presentation of objectives, organization, administration, relationships, and other pertinent factors of publicity programs. Baus (5), in an earlier book, offers publicity suggestions of a thoroly practical nature.

In 1929 Farley made his study on *What to Tell the People About the Public Schools.* After fifteen years Thomas (108) attempted to ascertain

if the rank order of reader interest as discovered by Farley still held. Paralleling the earlier study as far as possible, Thomas very largely substantiated Farley's findings as to reader interest. He enlarged the study to include editorial opinion with many correlations of racial and occupational groups. Thomas concludes with the need for improving greatly the quality of newspaper information published concerning the schools.

Attitudes and Appraisal

Three significant researches of a doctorate nature have recently appeared which attempt to measure attitudes of different groups towards certain public-relations problems. English (35) studied the attitudes of county boards of school directors toward fundamental and vital issues pertaining to county educational planning. On the whole he found these persons open-minded and progressive in their attitudes toward these problems. A workable program, if properly presented by administrative authorities, will find reasonably adequate response. Milhous (76) purposed to identify situations involving satisfactions and dissatisfactions of Des Moines teachers where relationships affected their personnel status. A portion of these pertained to public-school relations. He pointed out a lack of definitely established administrative policies and advocated a local attack on conditions bringing about these widespread dissatisfactions. Rankin (97) sought to determine the attitudes of parents of secondary pupils toward certain aspects of secondary school reporting practices. He discovered that parents not only have definite attitudes toward school reporting, but that in many instances there is a need to correct misinterpretations with definite plans and policies.

Some emphasis has been laid on appraisal in public-school relations. A number of references pointed out this need and offered suggestions (36, 42, 92). Wayman (115) appraised the extracurriculum program of the secondary school by the alumni in the light of their present leisure-time interests. Two studies attempted a more comprehensive appraisal of the larger program. Seyler (104) developed a tentative checklist for the evaluation of the program of school-home relationships in the elementary school. Miller's appraisal technic for programs of public-school relations (77) is perhaps the most ambitious attempt to develop a comprehensive instrument. More than 800 activities useful in public relations were identified and classified, weighted, developed into a checklist, and validated. Attempts were made to relate its use to appropriate philosophical backgrounds. The scale, while comprehensive, needs refinement to be of practical use.

Parents and Community Organizations and Services

Organized parent-teacher groups have played a significant part in public-school relations since the National Congress of Parents and Teachers was organized in 1897. With a national membership of considerably over two

million, this organization is probably the most influential in its effect on home-school relations. However, there have been few studies of a research nature pertaining to this type of organization. Two studies are reported in a single state (Pennsylvania). Burgard (21) studied the characteristics of the principal officers of parent-teacher associations, namely, the president, secretary, and chairman of the program committee, and found positive correlations when studied in relation to the efficiency of the association, using Holbeck's scale. Nicely (89) made an analytical study of the organization and administration of the activities of parent-teachers associations, revealing their wide variety and scope.

Of the business and professional men's organizations of national scope, Kiwanis, Rotary, and Lions each have educational programs which touch the public schools at many points. Rumbaugh (102) made an analytical study of the significant contributions of these organizations to the school.

The school and community are working together to combat juvenile delinquency and other youth problems. Many of these articles reported are descriptive of means taken to this end (42, 51, 82).

Community organizations further the health and recreational educational objectives as is pointed out in a report by the American Public Health Association (3). Community projects of a recreational nature were reported in the *National Elementary Principal* (48). Building youth programs has occupied the attention of many community groups in recent years. Brunner (19) reports a three-year project involving fifteen counties in three states, the purpose being to work thru existing community agencies for the development of strong community cooperation in the building of a permanent youth program. The National Education Association has sponsored several studies pertaining to the relations of the school and community organizations and service (103). Of a more general nature is Levy's report (68) of the case history of the people of a state. It is prolific in suggestions in the public-relations field. A similar handbook of practical suggestions for democratically improving daily life in the American community was published by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers (11). A more comprehensive treatment of the whole field of public-school relations may be found in Yeager (119).

Mention should be made of the numerous references of a descriptive nature reporting facts and opinions concerning the place and function of community organizations and services in public education in general. An excellent example of this type is that of Kindred (65), who has pointed out the improvement of educational opportunities brought about by the Public Education and Child Labor Association in Philadelphia.

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CHAPTER VI

Transportation of Pupils

JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH and EDGAR F. SNYDER

War had a great effect on school transportation generally and on many distinct features within it specifically. Many reports included instances of mileage cutting and route realignment, usually in conjunction with requests or directives from the Office of Defense Transportation (12). The use of master maps in laying out routes, staggering of school hours (15) to make multiple use of equipment, the reallocation of buses on bases of more desirable efficiency in use of available transportation, better selection of routes due to road conditions, elimination of duplication of routes, changing schools attended by pupils to make for convenience in carrying, all these and other devices were frequently found.

Damon (6), in discussing changes in buses produced during the war, revealed that approximately 55 to 60 percent less steel went into their construction than into prewar styles. Plywood and other substitutes replaced steel, making for lighter buses. In dealing with production figures in the war years, Hutchins (10) quoted from records of the ODT, and revealed that only thirty-six bus chassis were released for school purposes in 1942; but that the figure had risen to 8411 in the first seven months of 1945. Thus it was apparent that for a time at least, little new equipment was available. Instances are quoted of cooperation with war industries in the use of transportation equipment (16). Juckett (12) listed fifteen principles developed in wartime, to be tailored to circumstances, and Belknap (1) reporting changes in New York's transportation picture, predicted that wartime readjustments will, to a considerable extent, carry over into future policies.

Growth of Transportation

There was general agreement concerning the growth of pupil transportation. There were slightly fewer buses in operation in successive years of the war, but there was some increase in the number of children that were transported to school. A peak number of 87,400 school buses in use (10) was reported about the start of the war. Increases (3) in the numbers of schools furnishing transportation and children carried reached a high in the latest figures available. Over 4,600,000 are being carried daily. The number of buses (2) after "falling away" up until 1945, was climbing again in that year (3). Harris (9) reporting on the transportation of Negro pupils in North Carolina, pointed out a significant growth, altho the majority as yet remain unserved. Progress was reflected in the increased number of buses available, an increase of approximately 245 percent in six years.

Status of Transportation

Transportation statistics for recent years impress the reader with the fact that despite the war, more pupils are being transported by bus every year. The Southeast section of the United States transports the most pupils, with the Gulf States and Mid-West group close behind. The great majority of states appear to be giving more and more recognition to the transportation problem. Dixon's (7) account of Virginia's acti-vated interest was typical of reports from many states.

Financial Aspects

The financial picture is one of steadily increasing costs, as would be expected from the general situation. National figures (3) show increases as high as $10,000,000 in a year. State departments of education and state legislatures are becoming more interested in the financing of pupil transportation, both from the viewpoint of educational efficiency and of financial economy. Twenty-five states (5) now have laws specifying how transportation funds shall be used. Eleven others provide funds for transportation without specific direction for their use. Only twelve states made no particular mention of funds especially for this purpose. Covert (5) listed a table of factors relating to legal authorization for pupil trans-portation in the order of their frequency of occurrence in state laws. In many states (14) smaller schools are finding the burden of financing pupil transportation difficult; the smaller the school, the more difficult the burden. North Dakota (3) worked out a "Family System" of using auto-mobiles for certain small groups and cut expenses to almost half the state figure for buses. Pattington (15) worked out an interesting formula for estimating costs of operating a school bus fleet. On experiments, with actual figures to check against, he claimed consistently close results, thus offering a very useful device for schools contemplating a bus purchase. The same source expressed the advisability of using smaller vehicles on "feeder routes" as more economical than operating larger vehicles over bad roads. Latest figures (3) available on the nation's vehicles indicate that one of every eight must be replaced at the earliest possible moment. Inas-much as one out of every six children in the nation now rides to school in a school vehicle, and with unit transportation costs on the increase, the financial outlay in the next few years will be at new highs.

Ownership

There have been several studies of the relative merits of district owner-ship versus contracting for bus service, and the great majority of opinion has favored district ownership over contract business. This is also the trend in actual practice. Hutchins (10) set forth figures as recorded by the ODT, noting that under the ODT 80 percent of the new buses released

have been to district ownership; less than 20 percent to contractors. In the New England area, one out of every ten buses was district owned; the rest were contracted. In the Southeastern states, two out of three were district owned. The reasons advanced for district or system ownership have been many. Economy was mentioned frequently. Reliability of service, administrational efficiency, lesser degree of dependency on outside individuals, and greater safety have also been listed often.

Drivers

Standards on driver requirements were dropped in several states in order to carry on transportation programs during the war. A number of states, particularly in the West, reported dropping the age limit down to the mid-teens. North Carolina adopted a policy of having school boys and girls drive 80 percent of their school buses and claimed "probably the safest and most economical" transportation system in the country.

Carnel and Snyder (4) surveyed the northern area of New York State to determine current transportation practices and found a sizable number of older men employed as drivers. These men for the most part were not required to take any physical examination or checkup. Only about one school in four had physical requirements of any kind. Schools for bus drivers, however, have appeared in different states. Virginia (7) has reported 90 percent attendance at the sessions in 1943. New York State (1) has also developed a course of instruction and a manual for instructors. Release of war restrictions may well stimulate further developments in driver instruction.

Accident Liability

Joyner (11) investigated a large number of accident cases in many states. Cases were first divided into district cases and those involving contractors. Questions revolved around such points as determining the source of liability, the relations of various personages connected with the school's transportation system, matters of incidental profit, insurance, and other legal ramifications. A common question was that of whether a district performing a government function is liable in case of accidents.

School Bus Standards

Recently adopted standards (8) for school buses included the requirement of a new "Stop" arm with a red reflector element which is elevated from the driver's position and extends out beside the bus when children cross the road, new safety features in construction, a range of body size standards, and new rulings on station wagons and light vehicles.

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CHAPTER VII

School Surveys

JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH and WILLIAM L. GRAGG

THE NUMBER OF OCCASIONS upon which local school systems called in outside specialists to review and evaluate their programs, procedures, or facilities was considerably lower during the war than in previous years. However, the arrival of the postwar period of reconstruction has been accompanied by a notable increase in school survey activities. Unhappily, one factor which often motivates the use of the outside expert staff is the element of crisis in some local school situations; the board of education or some civic group, dissatisfied with the operation of the schools, seeks impartial judgment only after differences of opinion become acute and groups align themselves with respect to the issues involved.

Comprehensive studies of city school systems continued, generally, the employment of technics characterized by earlier surveys. Analysis of functions and relationships of administrative personnel led to recommendations for the reorganization of the administrative structure of the school system of Boston (39). Similar recommendations were made in other surveys directed by Rosenlof (35) and Works (43). In Columbus, Indiana (26), an attempt was made to strengthen the educational program of a small city system facing problems occasioned by critical housing deficiencies, pupil migration, extension of city boundaries, a sharply increased birthrate, and fluctuations in employment. Fowlkes (18, 19) considered community setting and composition of school population as bases for determining educational needs. In the Winchester, Massachusetts survey 3216 measurements of pupil achievement were derived from twenty-six standardized tests, and the mental age of all first-grade children was measured by the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test. Capital outlay limitations, assessed valuation of property, and grants-in-and-for building construction were considered in a study of community financing of a plant extension project in a rapidly growing industrial-area suburb at Hobart, Indiana (15). A comprehensive study at Red Bank, New Jersey (45) attacked exigent problems in their relation to the whole system. Problems were determined thru conferences with school and community groups and questionnaires submitted to 500 parents and teachers eliciting opinions on three degrees of qualitative and quantitative satisfaction of forty features of the educational program. A study of probable future enrolment was based on the analysis of enrolments and births during a continuous ten-year period.

One of the recommendations of the Battle Creek, Michigan (9) survey was that the board of education consider the possibility of establishing a junior college which would permit students electing to do so to complete their general education and to prepare themselves for life pursuits

in technical and vocational fields or for admission to some higher institution of learning. The survey at Barrington, Illinois (8) considered the territorial composition of village and adjacent rural elementary and high-school districts in determining the advisability of reorganization to unify the community under a single school system. Unification of elementary-school districts was a recommended objective of a study of two adjacent districts in the Highland Park, Illinois (10) community. The survey further proposed revision of the educational program in relation to its ability to achieve a given set of objectives in consideration of a year-round enterprise. Shelby (37) directed a survey of an agricultural-industrial area which comprised five community centers. Statistical data presented in seventy-two tables included results of achievement tests and mental ability tests attained by pupils in elementary, junior, and senior high schools, and responses to preference questionnaires dealing with various subjects taught in the elementary schools and recreational interests and habits of pupils in the second and sixth grades. A local school study conducted by Mort (29) as an integral part of a statewide survey in Rhode Island was instrumental in developing an advanced program of research, service, and instruction in educational administration at Harvard University. The survey was an objective study of structural, financial, and policy-making factors which affect education and its administration. Technics employed were: (a) inventory of existing program and practices of the school and reexamination of the educational system in its entirety; (b) appraisal of the program and work in the light of standards which could be ascertained and from the angles of both lay and professional viewpoint; (c) planning and recommendation for future development of the school system of the town.

Statewide Surveys

Altho numerous county and parish surveys were conducted during the past three years, few reports on them were published. The Darlington County, South Carolina (4) and Cook County, Illinois (33) studies indicated an effort to improve educational systems thru greater coordination of component schools and strengthening of the central administrative organization. Statewide surveys, using the county as a unit of operation for survey projects, have been organized in at least six states. The Alabama Educational Survey Commission (36) selected for detailed study a sample of thirty-four schools for white children and twenty schools for Negro children in nine representative counties. In the Virginia study, Lankford (24) reported on forty-three representative high schools; a frequency distribution of 1021 drop-outs according to various characteristics and post-school activities was tabulated. Tables were compiled to present data concerning all members of the 1942 graduating classes. Pearson (31) described the composition of the county school survey organization in Illinois. Florida (16, 17, 27) authorized a program of county survey

as units of a statewide investigation of the public school system to determine its major needs and to devise a satisfactory method of providing state aid to counties lacking the financial capacity to maintain minimum standards. The first stage of the survey published involved trends in populations of school-age children, educational status of the adult population, and the mobility of population within each county. The Michigan Public Education Study Commission (13, 14) analyzed current educational conditions in Michigan thru data derived from the public records, special research carried on by a number of specialists employed or acting for the commission, and information obtained from public hearings, held over a period of months at nine centers, for laymen, board of education members, and superintendents of schools. A research committee summarized information and translated it into general needs of public education in the state.

Strayer (38) directed a survey of the state system of elementary, secondary, and higher education in West Virginia. Included in the study was an appraisal of eighty-seven large elementary schools in twenty-one counties, based on the Mort-Cornell Guide for Self-Appraisal of School Systems. The segment of the survey which dealt with higher education called attention to regionalism of higher institutions, employing the technic of determining percents of persons enrolled in each institution who lived in variously defined areas. Other studies of higher education were directed by Brewton (5), Gibson (20), and Works (44). The first study represented an effort to relate the programs and physical facilities of state tax-supported institutions of higher learning in South Carolina to an adequately coordinated and unified system. The last two studies involved all institutions of higher education in the states of Mississippi and Illinois.

Administrative Studies

Surveys of administration and organization of school systems followed the usual technic of analyzing organizational structure and describing component functions. Studies directed by Brownell (6) and Strayer (40) were aimed toward reorganization of administrative control. The Bayonne survey included six administrative studies developed by field-work and staff conferences, which were reviewed by an independent committee of experts prior to presentation to the board of education. The New York City survey represented a detailed examination of the vast administrative structure of that city's schools. A survey directed by Hill (21), limited to problems of administrative organization, was utilized in formulating an administrative code for the San Francisco school system. The report included supplementary documentation of major recommendations upon which the more significant conclusions were based. Weaknesses inherent in the administrative control, characterized by multiple executive form of organization, were cited as a basis for recommending delegation of executive authority to a single officer in whom responsibility is centered

and whose point of view is primarily educational. Aderhold (1) proposed long-term planning for a rural county school system and presented a method of studying population mobility among school-age youth. Draper (12) formulated methods of reorganizing the Department of Public Instruction in Hawaii as a means of improving the curriculum in the schools of that territory.

The Metropolitan School Study Council was unique in its approach to surveying; Mort (28) discussed a technic whereby school systems representing a high expenditure level in the New York metropolitan area formed a cooperative organization to conduct research activities to evaluate comparable school systems whose programs could not be appraised adequately thru traditional procedures. Vincent (42), working with committees of teachers and laymen, compiled patterns under twelve classifications representing what they considered to be outstanding practices observed in all schools cooperating in the Metropolitan study. While the document has not been perfected in style, it should serve as a valuable working instrument for evaluation of school programs.

Trends and Needs

Criticisms of the worth of school surveys and of technics and objectives of surveying were the subject of numerous articles. Kanner (23) reviewed the value and significance of the survey in relation to psychiatric problems. It was pointed out that a survey not followed by service is futile; real service, making intelligent use of surveys, was considered instrumental in creating opportunities to deal practically with basic problems instead of limiting itself to half-hearted treatment of some of the resulting symptoms. Surveys have commonly been utilized in presenting in an impressive and objective form the facts of an "undesirable" situation. Arnold (3) concluded that school surveys, under certain conditions and when properly conducted, are important and valuable aids to the improvement of educational practice. The conditions cited were: (a) when the local school personnel is unable for any reason to survey satisfactorily its own problems; (b) when problems confronting schools have multiplied to the extent that local staffs cannot, within a reasonable length of time, hope to solve them without being unduly burdened; (c) when a new administration wished thoro analysis before undertaking any change in the program; (d) when there is reason to believe the school system has become "ingrown" and needs appraisal by persons with a different perspective; (e) when there is a marked difference of opinion regarding the status of the program of the local system; (f) when there is a desire on the part of all concerned to undertake a general review of the whole program leading toward progressive improvement of the local schools. Educational research carried on thru instructional facilities revealed in a single school was proposed by Thelen (41) as against the citywide survey and acceptance of majority opinions of large numbers of practitioners.

The trend in objectives of school surveys has followed a more distinct pattern toward implementation. Reller (34), in a previously reported article, characterized the implementative study by (a) use of such facts as are known and such recommendations as are available in producing actual changes in practice, and (b) setting in operation positive programs to overcome weaknesses of lacks and needs already recognized. Reports of some surveys called attention to the fact that positive action toward recommended objectives had already been initiated prior to the time of presenting the final report to the sponsoring agency. A second trend indicated by recent surveys is a wider recognition of the worth of scientific studies by small city and rural community school systems. Altho reports are less frequently released for public distribution, an increasing number of small systems have utilized research facilities in evaluating their programs in recent years. Finally, increasing reliance upon the cooperation of lay personnel has been noted in the operation of research studies involving comprehensive surveys of local school systems. Not only has public opinion been sought as a factor reflecting the needs and potentialities of a school, but citizens have been called upon to serve as members of committees to determine scope and methods of procedure, make recommendations, and approve policies related to studies and conclusions therefrom.

Despite the inclusive nature of comprehensive surveys, there are areas for study not fully covered in recent reports. Research is needed in student welfare problems, particularly in the field of pupil progress, attendance, and drop-out. The analysis of organizational structures and of school finance policies and procedures has overshadowed consideration of the curriculum, particularly in its relation to the effectiveness of the whole school program.

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CHAPTER VIII

Supervisory Organization and Administration[1]

HENRY J. OTTO

ABOUT EIGHTEEN YEARS AGO a number of studies were made which dealt specifically with the organization for supervision and the administration of the supervisory organization. These studies were made when the concepts of supervision were still centered largely upon inspection, direction, and appraisal of individual teacher merit. Since that time many changes have occurred in the philosophy and procedures of supervision. Undoubtedly these changes in philosophy and procedures have been accompanied by changes in the organization for supervision, the administration of the supervisory organization, and the broad realm of personnel administration in public schools. Yet there have been but a few scattered studies within the last ten years which have come to grip with the fundamental issues of the organization for supervision, supervisory procedures, and personnel management to give a clear picture of present practices and to appraise present practices and trends in the light of a changing philosophy of supervision and of school administration in general. Such studies are urgently needed.

The studies reviewed in this chapter deal with various aspects of supervision and different kinds of supervisory problems, but only by implication are they related to the basic question of supervisory organization and administration. This fact is no criticism of the studies themselves. The statement is made merely to prevent the reader from being misled into thinking that this chapter is a review of studies dealing directly with supervisory organization and administration.

The General Teacher Situation

All aspects of supervision and the inservice professional development of teachers have been affected by the heavy loss of teachers to the armed forces and industry during the war years. Blodgett (4) found the rate of teacher turnover in Illinois to be 21.6 percent in 1941-42 and 25.9 percent in 1942-43 as compared to a turnover of 28.3 percent in the state of Washington in 1942-43. A survey in Indiana (35) showed that between December 7, 1941 and April 1, 1944, about 25 percent, or 3400 teachers, resigned their positions in the Indiana public schools.

Beginning Teachers

Kebric's study (13) of the problems of beginning teachers of physical education in the high schools of California illustrates an effort to find the

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[1] Robert C. Hammock of the University of Texas assisted in preparing the bibliography for this chapter.

problems of beginning teachers and thus offers suggestions for preservice and inservice programs. Tate (35), by means of a questionnaire to twenty-five superintendents and sixty-four teachers, endeavored to study the difficulty of adjustment of new teachers in twenty-five Idaho high schools. He found that the major adjustment problems of beginning teachers pertained to (a) making satisfactory adjustments to pupils, (b) adjusting to the philosophy and objectives of the school, and (c) specific guidance functions.

Supervision in Catholic Schools

During the three-year period covered by this review, four studies were made of supervision in Catholic schools. The studies by Wilson (42) and Titzer (36) were not available for review when this summary was being prepared. By means of a questionnaire to 405 teachers, Sister Muriel (21) secured teacher appraisal of inservice education in Catholic secondary schools of Pennsylvania. The purposes of her study were (a) to identify the agencies and technics most frequently used in the inservice education of teachers, (b) to determine the frequency of use of these agencies and technics in Catholic secondary schools, (c) to obtain from teachers in these schools their ratings of the agencies and technics used, (d) to solicit from teachers suggestions concerning the improvement of present procedures, and (e) to submit these data to supervisors for appraisal of what is being done or of what needs to be done. In general, the findings and conclusions point to the need for both the extensive and intensive work that must be done in developing an effective program.

Hendrickson (8) surveyed present practices and problems of inservice teacher improvement in Catholic rural diocesan school systems in communities of 10,000 or less population in seven North Central states (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota). He summarized his study as follows: "A number of factors point to an inspectorial attitude among supervisory officers. Among these are the absence of cooperative program of improvement, the infrequent use of devices that involve teacher participation, and the nature of suggestions offered for a better use of supervisory devices. Improvement work, for the most part, seems to center around teaching routine and procedure and to consist of training in the mechanics of teaching. The idea of a scientific, cooperative attack upon problems of teachers is not indicated by practice, and, judging from the relative evaluation of supervisory devices by teachers, principals, and supervisors, is not strongly represented in opinion. . . . On the other hand, certain factors indicate a trend toward a larger concept of teacher improvement. . . . The general evidence points to the continued presence of a narrow, inspectorial concept of teacher improvement, together with a growing consciousness of the need for larger objectives and cooperative effort." (p. 263.)

Appraising Teacher Merit

Reavis and Cooper (29) presented a comprehensive treatment of evalua-
tion of teacher merit in city school systems in which they drew upon
significant findings of previous research and an analysis of rating forms
and rating procedures used in 104 school systems in cities of 20,000 and
over population.

Bolton (5) developed a technic whereby pupil achievement scores may
be used to evaluate teaching effectiveness. Hellfritzsch (7) conducted a
factor analysis of teacher abilities which yielded no single teacher measure
that could validly be substituted for actual measurement of pupil growth in
evaluating the ability of the teacher to teach, yet pupil-gain-teaching-ability
could be predicted from all or a subset of the eighteen teacher traits with a
maximum multiple correlation of .80 and .68, respectively. Gothan (6) dis-
covered no significant relationship between the criterion of pupil change
and the three personality inventories used.

Jayne, in his study of the relationship between teaching procedures and
educational outcomes (11), concluded (a) that supervisory ratings of
teachers, based upon transcriptions of teaching, seem to lack reliability and
validity, (b) that there is in general little relationship between specific
observable teacher acts and the pupil gain criterion, (c) that composite
index scores may be formed which have a relatively high correlation with
certain pupil gain criteria, and (d) that teaching activities must be appro-
priate to the objectives set up.

Barr (2, 3), Rostker (31), Rolfe (30), and La Duke (16) conducted
a study which was initiated in 1934-35, the major investigations conducted
during 1936-38, the statistical analyses made during 1938-44, and the
several studies reported in 1945. The purposes of the study were to find
answers to the following questions: (a) What are the prerequisites to teach-
ing efficiency, particularly for teachers of the social studies in grades
seven and eight in Wisconsin city and rural schools? (b) How valid and
reliable are certain of the instruments commonly employed in measuring
teaching efficiency and its prerequisites? (c) How do the prerequisites to
teaching efficiency, as measured in this investigation, seem to be
interrelated?

Rostker's study was concerned with twenty-eight seventh and eighth
grade classes in village and city schools whereas Rolfe's study involved fifty-
seven teachers in one- and two-teacher rural schools. The findings of these
two studies were essentially the same and are reflected in Rostker's sum-
mary, which was as follows: (a) the intelligence of the teacher is the
highest single factor conditioning teaching ability and remains so even
when in combination with other teacher measures; (b) the social attitude
of social studies teachers is an important factor in teaching ability; (c) the
attitude of teachers toward teaching is significantly correlated with teach-
ing ability; (d) knowledge of subjectmatter and the ability to diagnose
and correct pupil mental maladjustment are each significantly associated

with teaching ability; (e) the correlations between supervisory ratings of teachers and the criteria of teaching ability used in this study are statistically *insignificant;* and (f) personality, as here defined and measured, showed no significant relationship to teaching ability.

La Duke's special purpose was to study the validity of a selected battery of tests shown by the earlier investigations to have particular promise. He arrived at no especially new conclusions, except that "the principal weakness of the study lay in the fact that pupil change, and therefore teaching efficiency, was determined for but a small part of the complete school experience of the pupils."

Evaluation of Supervision

The studies by McKee (19) appraising the cooperative group plan of inservice training of teachers, by Lafferty (17) in which principals appraised the purposes of the cooperative study of the secondary-school standards, and by Koopman (15) which detailed the implications of the democratic and autocratic roles of teachers for teacher education were not available for review when this summary was being prepared.

Von Eschen (39) appraised a supervisory program in terms of its effectiveness in improving pupil growth. In terms of this criterion he found the supervisory program effective in (a) safeguarding public health, (b) abilities used in organizing research materials, (c) applying generalizations to social studies events, (d) civic information, (e) silent reading ability, and (f) performing basic study skills. The supervisory program was most effective in those areas in which it was most concentrated.

Antell (1) requested 200 teachers in eight New York City elementary schools to appraise supervision. Nine out of the ten items rated highest by the teachers pertained to making available to them resource materials for their own improvement. Of the nine items rated actually detrimental, only one was mentioned by more than 20 percent of the teachers; this item (receiving 65 percent of the votes) was "rigid adherence of each teacher to a fixed daily program." In general, teachers preferred those supervisory practices which gave them widest latitude to participate in curriculum improvement, which made available to them sources of pertinent information, and which gave them genuine assistance. They resented all forms of impositions. They wanted help in their everyday problems. They did not care for inspectorial supervision.

Slack (32) sought to evaluate the inservice program for teachers in Mason County, Michigan. According to the appraisal methods used, the results were positive and encouraging.

Walker (40) endeavored to determine experimentally whether the "directed discussion conference," "the case study and discussion," "the coordinated lecture and discussion," "the symposium-forum," or "a combination of these methods" was most effective in developing satisfactory supervisors in an automobile factory. He found that all five of the methods

aided greatly in raising supervisory morale and in giving satisfaction and happiness to the trainees. Those methods which put greatest emphasis upon conferee activity resulted in greater supervisory personality development of the desired sort. In this regard the "symposium-forum" was the best and the "lecture-discussion" the least effective.

Kelly (14) appraised the program of supervision in the state of Virginia. Since 1931 an intensive program of curriculum revision and improvement of instruction had been operative in Virginia but no comprehensive attempt had been made previously to evaluate the state program for the improvement of instruction or to analyze the duties performed by the rural elementary supervisors. The study focused upon the work of the thirty-seven rural, white, elementary supervisors who had been in continuous service in Virginia from 1931-32 thru 1939-40. The twenty-four major findings reveal the trend toward cooperative procedures focused upon child growth and development, and the use of community resources.

General Studies

Weber (41) gave a summary of the findings of the subcommittee on inservice education of the North Central Association of Colleges a..d Secondary Schools. He concluded, "inservice education in the secondary schools of the North Central Association, as judged by the reports from the selected sample, is in a confused, perplexing, but promising state of flux. The modal practice in the secondary schools is traditional, supervisory, inspectional, and individualistic, but administrators, teachers, supervisors, and department heads agree that the modal practices do not represent the most promising practices." In later reports (10, 26) the Association set forth criteria for a good inservice program based on the technics rated the most valuable by the teachers in the study.

Miller (20), in a questionnaire to 114 teachers in seven high schools in 1936 and to 106 teachers in ten high schools in 1942, found teachers favorable to supervision, with a definite preference for democratic supervision. Symonds (33, 34) studied the needs of teachers by making an analysis of the autobiographies of fifty teachers, the autobiographies having been written as an assignment in a course on mental hygiene. O'Neil (27) analyzed the function of work experience in education and made special applications to teacher education.

Jollief (12) conducted a study to determine the supervisory activities and evaluative measures used by state departments of education in their supervision of elementary schools. Special consideration was given the states of Indiana, Ohio, Wisconsin, and Illinois. In terms of publications, some states stand out as having both more intensive and more extensive programs than others. Among the leaders were California, Louisiana, Maryland, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Certain other states showed comparatively few activities. In terms of supervisory activities of staff members, classification and rating of schools stood as prominent features. Inspection is still

regarded as an important means of evaluating schools but the term is giving way to supervision. Curriculum study is a feature of today's state leadership. Statewide testing is an unsettled issue.

Western Illinois State Teachers College (18) published a progress report at the middle of a five-year project in rural school supervision. The main objective of the project has been the introduction of a new and adequate type of rural school supervision whereby definite teacher, school, and community improvements based on increased study of child growth and development are being realized. The feature which makes this project unique is the fact that the supervisor acts as a liaison between the teachers college and the office of the county superintendent of schools. The report gives the history of the project and the findings of the initial educational, sociological, and economic surveys.

Trends in Supervision

The general character of the studies which have been reviewed reflects the trend of thought and practice in supervision. There is genuine and widespread concern for continuous and careful appraisal of supervisory functions and the activities of supervisors. The emphasis is upon school improvement so that there may be more effective and better ways of promoting children's growth and development. Improved teaching can come about only as teachers in service enhance their professional capacities and prospective teachers are prepared for the new emphases in school programs. Supervision, therefore, is becoming leadership in school improvement and in the inservice professional development of teachers. Since teacher growth comes best by methods which elicit large amounts of teacher participation and teacher activity, the emphasis in supervision is being placed upon democratic teacher-participatory activities aimed at the inservice professional development of teachers.

These trends are reflected further in the yearbooks of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, the last three of which were entitled *Toward a New Curriculum* (1944), *Group Planning in Education* (1945), and *Leadership Through Supervision* (1946) (22, 23, 24). The same trends are reflected in two publications of the American Council on Education, which are entitled *Evaluation in Teacher Education* (38) and *Teacher Education In-Service* (28), and in the report of the Michigan cooperative teacher-education study (37).

That teachers respond well to supervisory programs and activities is adequately demonstrated in several of the studies which were reviewed, in the publications named in the preceding paragraph, and in a special study made by the Research Division of the National Education Association, published under the title of "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration" (25).

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discussed the financing of a minimum educational program and the relation of such financing to state responsibility. He indicated the difficulties of determining the extent of state responsibility. Fowlkes (7) quoted a report by a committee on the question, "What are the responsibilities of the state for the support of education?" This report presented certain criteria to determine state responsibility. Cook (4) presented a statement of the fundamental nature of the responsibility of the state for education. He concluded that the people of the entire state have a primary responsibility for the education of all the children of the state. This statement is illustrative of the kinds of conclusions that are being reached by some of the leading students of state school administration.

Mort and Cornell (12) made an analysis of the response of an entire state school system to the needs of society. This study emphasized the increasing responsibility of the state for education and presented an analysis of the process by which the people of a state modify the policies and practices of education. They concluded that an understanding of the process whereby changes are brought about in the educational program is essential to those who would accept the responsibility for improving the educational program. It is essential to understand the process by which a school system adapts itself to changing conditions in order to develop a better basis for educational policy.

The National Education Association and its various departments have devoted much attention to the nature of state responsibility for education. The Educational Policies Commission (5) presented a clear statement of the responsibility of the state for education.

In connection with state responsibility for education, the problem of the relationship between the state and local school systems has received considerable attention. Mort and others have emphasized the importance of local responsibility and initiative in the development of a sound state school system. It is generally agreed that state responsibility does not mean that the state should assume the entire function of operating the schools. The problem of achieving a proper balance between state and local responsibility is one of the most difficult problems of state school administration.

Structure of the State School System

A number of studies have been concerned with the structure of the state school system. The problem of the proper organization of the state department of education has received considerable attention. The National Council of Chief State School Officers (15, 16) has made significant contributions to the study of this problem.

reported a trend toward noneducational state control by governors, state legislatures, courts, tax commissions, and budget boards. Morphet (11) presented a philosophic analysis of the problem of state responsibility and concluded that the move toward state centralization had gone too far in certain states and not far enough in others. The Southern States Work-Conference (24) made an extensive analysis of this problem and challenged the implications of the traditional assumption that education is the exclusive responsibility of the states. The official representatives of these states concluded that public education is a function of the state, local, and federal governments and that each has the responsibility of performing its proper functions. The Conference (24) then proposed criteria for determining the proper educational functions of the several levels of government. This study is of particular significance in that it represents the consensus of selected representatives of the state departments of education and state teacher associations of fourteen states covering a large region of the United States.

Witkowiak (28) made a study of court decisions relating to the authority of the state with respect to education and found that state authority was not unlimited. He cited opinions of the United States Supreme Court, with reference to discrimination between races and with reference to the state's authority to require all children to attend public schools.

The State Board of Education

The Southern States Work-Conference recommended one central educational authority at the state level with authority over all phases of public education, such central authority to consist of a state board of education, a state superintendent of education, and a state department of education. Greene (7), and Greene and Meadows (18) reported only four states (Florida, Idaho, Montana, and New York) as having such an authority.

The functions of the state board of education and the method of its creation are vital problems of state school administration. The National Council of Chief State School Officers (15) recommended one state board of education as the sole policy-making body at the state level, composed of from five to nine members serving overlapping terms, selected by a plan which will prevent partisan political domination, with the state superintendent serving as executive officer and secretary of the board. Morphet (11) and Greene and Meadows (18) recommended one central educational authority at the state level. The National Conference on Prospective Educational Programs (14) recommended that all federal relationships with the states be cleared thru the state board of education, if a state had such a board, and in any state without such an authority that a State Commission for Special Federal State Education Programs be created. The Alabama Survey Commission (1) recommended that one state board, composed of nine members, be appointed by the governor for nine-year overlapping terms, the executive officer to be selected by the board. The Virginia Education

Commission recommended a nine-member state board of education to be appointed by the governor for four-year overlapping terms to serve as the central educational authority of the commonwealth. The Southern States Work-Conference (24) recommended a state board of education of from seven to nine members selected in such manner as to prevent partisan political domination.

The National Council of Chief State School Officers (16) reported a great variety of methods being used to select state schoolboard members. In sixteen states the board was appointed entirely by the governor; in fifteen states some members were appointed by the governor and other members were ex officio members; in three states all members were ex officio members; in three states the board was elected by popular vote; in one state a convention of local schoolboards chose the state board; in one state the legislature elected the board; in one state the state superintendent of education appointed the board; and in eight states there is no general state board of education. The U. S. Office of Education (26) reported that three states (Georgia, New Hampshire, and South Carolina) had reorganized their state boards of education in 1943.

The State Superintendent of Education

The National Council of Chief State School Officers (16) reported that thirty-two state school officers were elected by popular vote, nine appointed by the governor, and seven appointed by the state board of education. Despite the fact that appointment by the state board of education is the least common method of selecting the state superintendent, every published study of this problem in the period under review recommended the appointment, by the state board of education, of a professionally trained executive to serve as state superintendent of education. Typical of these studies are reports of the Southern States Work-Conference (24), the report of the Alabama Survey Commission (1), the Forty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (18), and a report of the Educational Research Service of the National Education Association (17).

The State Department of Education

The National Education Association (17) reported the following facts concerning state departments of education: (a) an infinite variety of staff organization and of individual positions, (b) a median salary of professional employees of $3221, (c) salary schedules in half of the states and in the other half salaries paid on a flat basis or fixed by law or administrative regulation, (d) tenure provided in two-fifths of the states, (e) retirement in three-fourths of the states, and (f) conditions in state departments of education generally not conducive to the best type of service. Other studies confirmed the need for improving the staffs of state departments of education. The Southern States Work-Conference (24) presented an analysis of the areas of service of state departments ·of education which indi-

cated professional service and leadership, rather than control, to be the principal functions of state departments of education.

Relationship of the State Educational Authority to Other Agencies

The relationship of educational authorities to other agencies is a problem which is receiving increasing attention. Morphet (11), in the Forty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, presented an extensive analysis of the relationship of education to other governmental agencies. Samuelson (18) suggested some general policies and guiding principles governing the relationships of the schools to other social and educational agencies. Grieder (8) concluded that the respective provinces of state and local administration have not been clearly defined and that most of our thinking in this area has been based upon opinion. Morrison (13) concluded that, unless the states develop the necessary leadership in education, the leadership will go by default to the federal government. The National Council of Chief State School Officers (15) recommended that all state educational functions be concentrated in the state department of education and that the education department develop cooperative procedures in dealing with other departments of government in areas of common interest.

The Organization of Higher Education

This subject has been reviewed in part in the above paragraphs and extensively in Chapter XI. However, in certain studies, special attention has been given to the problem of state administration of higher education. The Alabama Survey Commission (1) recommended that all publicly supported institutions be placed under the control of the state board of education but that each institution should have an advisory board. The survey staff for the study of higher education in South Carolina (2) recommended the establishment of an over-all higher education commission of thirteen members to coordinate the work of the institutions of higher education in that state but that each institution retain a board with authority to administer such affairs as did not involve coordination. The staff also recommended that the commission appoint a director of higher education. Gibson (5) made a study of higher education in Mississippi and found that altho all institutions were administered by one board of trustees, little provision had been made for the coordination of the work of those institutions. He recommended that, in order to promote coordination, the board employ an executive secretary with an adequate professional staff and also establish a staff council of education. The council would be comprised of representatives from the state department of education, the junior colleges, and the private colleges. The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (23) reported that many college boards were too large and that appointment of college boards by the governor tended to mean political

appointment. Works (29) reported that changes in the control of higher education showed two trends: unification of control and the employment of a professional executive to work with a lay board of control. The Southern States Work-Conference recommended coordination of higher education within a state and regional cooperation among the states in providing certain types of higher education.

Educational Planning at the State Level

Strayer (25) reported the use of a citizens committee and advisory committee of lay and professional people in planning the reorganization of a state system of public education in California. Credle (3) reported that forty of the forty-eight states participated in the planning of school plants. Elliott (4) developed a program in Michigan for planning a school program on a statewide basis. Grace (6) analyzed the planning function of state departments of education and concluded that the fundamental purpose of a state department of education is leadership, service, research, and planning. He recommended the use of lay committees in educational planning. Elliott and Mosier (18) proposed principles underlying planning and presented technics for the organization of planning. Pullen (19) made an analysis of the postwar problems of education and presented a program for their solution in Maryland.

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CHAPTER X

The Federal Government and Education

EDGAR L. MORPHET and ROE L. JOHNS

DURING recent years much has been written on the subject of federal relations to education. The amount of research in the field, however, is limited. About as many persons seem to be interested in taking a position and trying to defend it as in seeking to determine how an adequate program of education can best be provided thruout the nation.

Altho another number of the REVIEW (Volume XIV, Number 2) includes materials directly involving federal financial support for education, it is not possible to separate this subject entirely from other phases of the problems. This chapter attempts to center attention on research which primarily involves federal relations to education rather than on research primarily involving federal support.

Consideration of federal support almost invariably leads to a consideration of the federal relations involved. Somewhat typical of the articles which summarize the arguments for and against federal participation in financial support for schools is the statement by Misner and Reeves (16) in which Misner presented the arguments against federal aid and Reeves presented those in favor of aid, taking the position that it can be provided without danger of federal control. Most writers seem to agree that federal control must be avoided, and some recognize that undesirable controls are not to be avoided by the apparently simple but misleading device of opposing federal funds for education (1, 20, 21, 27). Moehlman (18) took the position that federal control of education is coming by progressive fractional infiltration and called such infiltration a threat to education.

The Controversy

The controversy over the federal government and education does not seem, when fundamentals are considered, to involve federal support for education as much as it involves the relationship of the federal government to education. All authorities seem to be agreed on one point, that the federal government has not established or followed any consistent policy in its relations to education (1, 2, 8, 9, 28). Some took the position that there should be more federal centralization and others took just the opposite position that the states should work out their own destinies without any help or leadership from the federal government (8, 9). Both extremes seem to be impracticable. Partly because agreement has not been reached, Congress has sometimes tended to move in one direction and sometimes in the other. In general, the result has tended to be a policy of drift (1). Obviously this problem of relationships needs much further study, research, and experimentation to provide a basis for greater agreement.

Need for Federal Support

The case for federal support seems to have been made without any question of doubt by studies which have been carried on over the past quarter of a century. The disagreement seems to be essentially on the question of whether federal funds can be provided without bringing undesirable federal controls (9, 43). Other research regarding the need for federal support will probably add refinements, but will hardly be expected to add materially to the conclusiveness of the evidence regarding the need for federal support.

Additional and rather conclusive evidence of the need for federal support has been presented, during the past three years, by Norton and Lawler with the assistance of an advisory committee (29, 30). This study (30) and its graphic, abbreviated presentation in booklet form (29) indicate that:

1. There are great inequalities in educational opportunities provided in the various states.
2. There are great differences in the educational load to be carried, i.e., the number of children in proportion to the total population is much greater in some states than in others, and, in general, is much greater in states with least ability than in those with most ability.
3. States differ greatly in their ability to support an adequate program of education. These differences would be marked even if the proportion of children in the total population were the same and were accentuated by the differences in the proportionate number of children.
4. While some states are making a greater effort than others to support an educational program, in general the states with the least ability are making the greatest effort and still cannot support an adequate program.
5. What happens or does not happen in each state is of concern to other states partly because of the great amount of interstate migration and partly because of the stake of each state in national welfare.
6. The adequacy of the educational program provided in the respective states is directly related to national well-being.

Ross (36) in a study of factors associated with the state's educational level concluded that: (a) there are enormous inequalities among states and within the state of Kentucky, (b) these inequalities constitute a direct challenge to American ideals, and (c) the poorer states by themselves are powerless to break the vicious circle and must have help from outside.

Representative of numerous studies which have appeared in state education association journals are those by Moe (17), which showed why federal aid is needed in Montana, and by Quinn (35), who undertook to show that federal aid can be provided without federal control.

Lindman (13) proposed a formula for distributing federal aid on an equalized matching grant-in-aid plan, using variable matching ratios depending upon the relative tax-paying ability of the states. The Educational Policies Commission (8) opposed any plan of dollar for dollar

matching in principle and classed such a matching requirement for special grants as "an insidious type of control." This position does not seem to be inconsistent with the position taken by Lindman (13).

The White House Conference on Rural Education (25) recommended that the federal government adopt a permanent policy of financial assistance to the states. The Commitee on Education of the U. S. Chamber of Commerce (39) recognized education as an investment in people and used charts to show state comparisons of the adult educational level, enrolments in schools, current expense of school systems, teachers' salaries, and sources of school funds. It concluded that education is an essential instrument thru which commerce, industry, and agriculture can be expanded to a surprising degree.

Covert (41) listed federal funds available for educational purposes in 1942-43 and 1943-44 and the amount of the various appropriations. Norton (31) stated that education is operating on a hand to mouth basis and pointed out that the federal government is providing annually nearly $400,000,000 of uncoordinated appropriations for education. He indicated that the only question is the form of federal participation. Norton (32) also pointed out that only the federal government can finance adequately the educational services which we now recognize as indispensable, and he gave evidence to show that federal aid can be provided without federal control.

Dawson (6) gave evidence to show that the idea of the inevitability of federal control accompanying federal aid is fallacious. The National Education Association prepared a series of statements showing why federal assistance is necessary, pointing out that this assistance can be given without federal control (26, 27). Carpenter and Capps (4) analyzed some of the problems growing out of migrating school children, and they pointed out the need for federal assistance. Drew (7) reviewed the concern of the federal government for a physical fitness program.

Federal Policies Relating to Education

Altho federal policies relating to education are still chaotic and involve much disagreement, during the past three years there seems to have been considerable progress toward defining acceptable policies. The Educational Policies Commission has made two important studies in this field. The first, a source book prepared by Morphet (9), attempts to (a) state the issues involved in federal relations to education which have been recognized as important, (b) classify the issues under logical major topics or headings, and (c) quote under each issue the position or recommendations of each important committee or organization which has made a study of the problem during recent years.

The second study of the Educational Policies Commission resulted in a statement of policies on federal-state relations in education, based on a memorandum and other materials prepared by Norton (8). It is significant

that this publication gives major attention to the fundamental policies and principles of action which should guide the future development of federal-state relations in education.

The National Council of Chief State School Officers has prepared and adopted a statement of policies involving federal-state relations in education. The first statement (23) dealt with the general problem and gave criteria to be observed. The second statement (24) attempted to determine the educational services which the states should expect from the federal government.

Additional proposals and policies, which in many respects are similar to the proposals given above, are found in *Paths to Better Schools* by the American Association of School Administrators (1), in the Southern States Work-Conference report (19), in the chapter Morphet prepared for the yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (28), and in the material prepared by Zook (45).

Morphet (20) stressed the fact that continuation of present policies will result only in increased confusion, stated that the federal government will continue to recognize and attempt to provide for educational needs, and recommended that the best way to avoid undesirable federal control of education is to establish a definite plan of federal aid.

Some of the major developments relating to federal policies and activities in education were summarized by Brodinsky (2) and by a Library of Congress analysis (15). Quattlebaum (33) reviewed the educational programs of war emergency agencies, and concluded that the question of continuing these federal functions, or adopting them to conditions after the war, involves an important problem of national policy. He also listed arguments for and against federal aid (34).

Zook (45) pointed out the responsibilities of the federal government for education and outlined proposals to assure that these responsibilities can be exercised without federal control. Edwards (10) analyzed population changes and called these changes the social and economic basis of a desirable national policy for education.

Relations of the federal government to education in wartime were considered by Todd (38) who reviewed the relations during the first World War, and by the Educational Policies Commission (8) which called attention to developments during the recent war and pointed out that tendencies toward centralization are developing which should be avoided. Carmichael (3) analyzed the relationship of the federal government to the colleges and universities during the war and stated that these relationships have been essentially constructive, democratic, and sound.

Undesirable Controls by Federal Noneducational Agencies

One of the serious problems which seems to have arisen during recent years involves the undesirable controls which result from administration of federal functions by federal noneducational agencies. Morphet (22)

reached the conclusion that many undesirable federal controls of education have resulted during recent years because of educational activities of such agencies as P.W.A., W.P.A., N.Y.A., and more recently the F.D.A. The dangers which have arisen because of the activities of noneducational federal agencies are pointed out by the Educational Policies Commission (8), the Southern States Work-Conference (19), the National Society for the Study of Education (28), and by many others. The position that undesirable federal controls of education can be avoided by refusing to approve or provide any direct federal appropriation for education is shown by experience to be unsound. The best way to avoid these undesirable controls is to provide a direct system of federal aid with a statement of the objective and acceptable controls written into the law (8, 20).

Assuring Better Coordination and Cooperation

The problem of better relations is, of course, much broader than the phases involving education. The need for better coordination was strongly emphasized in the recent Treasury Department Report on Federal-State and Local Governmental Fiscal Relations (42). It pointed out that the federal government has a vital interest in maintaining and strengthening both state and local governments and stressed the fact that much valuable energy has been wasted unnecessarily in quarreling over the proper spheres of the federal government and the states when the seeds of solid achievement lie in the relatively neglected field of intergovernmental cooperation and coordination. Suggestions relating to better cooperation and coordination among federal agencies were also made by the National Council of Chief State School Officers (23), by Studebaker (37), and by the American Association of School Administrators (1). The position is taken that better coordination will mean that federal educational activities will clear thru the U. S. Office of Education rather than be conducted by unrelated noneducational agencies. Undesirable federal controls can thereby be avoided (8).

Need for a More Functional Federal Headquarters for Education

The importance of strengthening the U. S. Office of Education and thus enabling it to take more active leadership in rendering educational services which should be provided thru the federal government is recognized by practically every study dealing with the subject. Recommendations made during prior years are summarized in the *Source Book* of the Educational Policies Commission (9). The National Society Yearbook (28) calls attention to the fact that for some reason citizens of the nation have never been willing to establish the Office of Education on such a basis that it can carry on its proper functions effectively. Proposals have ranged from those advocating reorganization of the office, adequate staffing, and compensation (8, 24, 28, 37), to those advocating the establishment of a

National Board of Education (1, 28). The fact that recommendations relating to the reorganization and more adequate staffing and financing of the Office of Education are now being carried out may have considerable significance for federal leadership and coordination in the field of education.

Federal Relations to States

The fact that many federal agencies concerned with education tend to by-pass state educational organizations and deal directly with local schools and school systems seems to be recognized as one of the paramount problems of the present time (1, 8, 9, 19, 20). While education is generally recognized as a function of state and local governments, this does not mean that the federal government has no responsibility for education. The problem seems to be one of finding the proper functions and responsibilities of each level of government and developing a satisfactory program of working relationships (1, 8, 19, 28). The American Association of School Administrators Yearbook (1), in a chapter on Federal-State-Local Relations, attempted to define the proper functions of each level of government. The National Council of Chief State School Officers (23) proposed principles which should be followed in working out satisfactory relationships.

Relationships of the Federal Government to Local School Systems

Most authorities hold that the federal government should not deal directly with local schools or school systems but rather should render services to education thru and in cooperation with the states (11, 19, 23, 28). The proper functions of the local school system as related to state and national government are set forth in considerable detail by the yearbooks of the American Association of School Administrators (1) and the National Society for the Study of Education (28). Numerous instances of failure on the part of federal agencies to observe proper functions and desirable relationships are also given. Attention is called to the fact that many local school authorities do not recognize the basic principles involved and sometimes seek to gain special favors by taking advantage of opportunities to deal directly with federal agencies (1, 8, 28).

Strengthening State Programs of Education

There seems to be common agreement that if proper relationships are to be worked out it is necessary that state agencies for education in many states be greatly strengthened. The National Conference on Prospective Educational Programs (40) summarized the situation, called attention to the difficulties which arise when there are several unrelated educational agencies in the state, and recognized the need for one central educational authority charged with the responsibility of dealing with the federal gov-

ernment. In addition to the establishment of a central educational agency in each state, attention is called to the need for selecting chief state school officers on a professional basis and for strengthening state departments of education (1, 19, 28, 44).

The major function of the state was viewed by Davis (5) as that of a developmental social agency. He pointed out that the ultimate solution of the problem of federal control lies somewhere between extreme centralization and extreme decentralization. Herald (12) took the position that undesirable federal controls of higher education began with the Hatch Act. He gave an extended analysis of the principal agencies and processes of federal control of elementary and secondary education as well as of higher education. A fear of federal control was expressed by Leipold (14) who recommended improvement of state programs of education as the best safeguard against undersirable federal controls.

Desirable and Undesirable Federal Controls

Morphet called attention to the fact that the word "control" is often used as a "red herring" term to confuse issues (21). He stated that there seems to be agreement that some controls are desirable and some are undesirable and indicated that the problem is to distinguish between the desirable and the undesirable controls and to encourage the establishment of policies which will reduce undesirable controls to a minimum. The National Council of Chief State School Officers recognized the desirability of certain types of control when properly exercised (23). The desirability of an annual report covering the use of funds and the results achieved, of routine federal post-audits at the state level and of cooperative preparation of plans for the use of funds is recognized by the Policies Commission (8) as well as by numerous other studies (1, 19, 28). The desirability of leadership and research of a type which cannot well be carried on by the states and other similar activities at the federal level is recognized by practically all authorities (1, 8, 24, 28).

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CHAPTER XI

Higher Education

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Statistical Studies of Higher Education

STATISTICS for higher education during the period covered by this report reflect only by indirection the upheaval caused by the war on institutions of higher education. The huge enrolment increase of the postwar period was just beginning to show in the later figures.

The U. S. Office of Education issues annually an *Educational Directory*. Part III, Colleges and Universities, (29) classifies all institutions of higher learning in the United States into six types, according to their offerings, as follows: universities and colleges, professional and technological schools, teachers colleges, normal schools, negro institutions, and junior colleges. Information provided for each institution includes: accreditation status, source of legal control, composition of the student body, and the names of the chief administrative officers. Additions and changes from previous years are listed conveniently at the end of the directory.

Unfortunately, the Office of Education is still behind schedule with the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*. The most recent section entitled "Statistics of Higher Education" (28) included data for the years 1939-40 and 1941-42. As expected, the enrolment figures for those years revealed that the number of male college students began to decline immediately after the enactment of the Selective Service Act.

More recent statistical sources indicated that this decline gathered momentum following our entrance into World War II. Walters (30), analyzing statistics from 671 institutions of higher learning, found that the enrolment of civilian students in 1943 had dropped 30.5 percent from 1942. This loss was partially offset by more than 200,000 military personnel who received training on college campuses. However, in the spring and summer of 1943 the Army Specialized Training Program was drastically curtailed. Altho the navy continued its program on an even keel, many institutions suffered sudden enrolment losses. In his annual summary of junior college enrolment statistics for 1943-44, Eels (12) reported the greatest decline in the history of the junior college movement, from 325,151 students in 1942 to 249,788 in 1943, a decrease of 23.2 percent.

By 1945 the addition of veterans to college enrolment had reached significant proportions. In that year Walters (32) reported more than 90,000 veterans among the student bodies of our higher institutions. But even with this innovation, the total college enrolment for 1945 was still 21.8 percent below the prewar figure for 1939. However, all indications pointed toward record-breaking enrolments shortly after the end of the war. stimulated by the passage and subsequent revision by Congress of Public Laws 16 and 346.

Other statistical studies portrayed various phases of the war's impact upon higher education. Whitehead (33) summarized enrolment trends in ten of the thirteen Negro teachers colleges in the United States and found that the number of female students greatly increased as the number of male students decreased. Eckelberry (9) conducted a "quick survey" of the postwar plans of 450 colleges and universities. His report included the composition of planning agencies, changes in curriculum and entrance requirements, and the various types of students to be accommodated. Eels (10) summarized the war service records of students, graduates, and faculties, as reported by approximately one-half of the junior colleges in this country.

State Surveys of Higher Education

During the three-year period covered by this issue of the REVIEW, a number of states have conducted surveys of their higher educational institutions. Among the more comprehensive studies of this type were those undertaken in Illinois (35), Mississippi (14), and South Carolina (6). Other states, such as Alabama (25), Michigan (13), and West Virginia (26), conducted surveys of their entire educational facilities, and institutions of higher learning received relatively brief treatment in the survey reports.

The Illinois survey (35) was based upon investigations by a number of outside experts, which were reported in separate studies to the commission. The highlights of these individual reports are presented in the report of the commission. The special studies and reports were as follows: (a) Dental Education in Illinois: Harlan H. Horner; (b) The Junior College Policy in Illinois: Leonard V. Koos (Report No. 8); (c) Medical Education in Illinois: Victor Johnson; (d) The Population of Illinois: Trends in growth, distribution, and educational attainment. Newton Edwards and Herman Richey, (Report No. 7); (e) State Supported Teacher Education in Illinois: Clyde M. Hill, Samuel Brownell, and C. B. Gentry, (Report No. 9); (f) Technical Education in Illinois: Lynn A. Emerson, (Report No. 6).

Besides these reports which have been made available to the members of the commission, the staff of the central office prepared the following reports to assist the commission in its work: (g) Numbers of Students and Faculty Members in Institutions of Higher Education: A comparative study of Illinois and five other Mid-Western states (Report No. 1); (h) Financial Support of Higher Education: A comparative study of Illinois and five other Mid-Western states (Report No. 2); (i) Boards of Control of Publicly Controlled Institutions of Higher Education (Report No. 3); (j) Enrolment Trends, Illinois Senior (Four-Year) Higher Institutions and the Potential Capacity of these Institutions (Report No. 4); (k) Sources of Income, Illinois Senior (Four-Year) Colleges and Universities (Report No. 5).

Ninety-two higher institutions in Illinois were studied by Works and his staff (35) and recommendations were submitted in four general areas: control and administration of higher education, state supported teacher education, the junior college, and state scholarships. Of greatest interest to administrators were the recommendations that a state board of higher education be established, that the physical plant of all the state's higher institutions be improved, that the establishment of local public junior colleges be encouraged financially by the state, that state scholarships of $250 per year for four years be awarded annually to 4 percent of all high-school graduates, that the state certify all public-school teachers, and that the teachers colleges should be *truly* regional colleges. This latter recommendation, it is pointed out, means that each college should serve the particular needs of *its* region. It "should not be interpreted to mean that, because one college performs a particular service, all the colleges are justified in expanding their programs to include that service," because regional needs differ and because some services can be performed better on a statewide basis than on a regional basis.

The Mississippi study (14) divided recommendations for higher education into three categories: those involving no financial expenditure, notably reorganization of the central staff of the board of trustees; actions requiring increased current expenditures, such as, higher salaries; actions involving capital outlay, which included specific building and repair requirements for seven colleges. The recommendations within these three categories were then classified as "imperative, urgent, or needed."

The South Carolina Survey Staff (6) advocated the creation by constitutional amendment of a higher education commission. It also recommended a $12,000,000 building program for the six South Carolina institutions of higher learning, with an additional $10,500,000 to be expended later. Other important recommendations of an administrative nature included: enlarged, better-trained, and higher-paid faculties, the establishment of student-personnel programs, provisions for curriculum revision, and reorganization of teacher-training programs.

Altho these state surveys of higher education differed markedly in their specific recommendations, there was great similarity both in the types of problems encountered and in the survey technics employed. Concerning administrative recommendations, certain very definite trends were apparent: greater centralization of state control over higher education, improved physical plant and educational facilities, elimination of wasteful competition between institutions within each state, and increased salaries for college faculties.

The New York State Education Department sponsored a series of research studies as a basis for planning postwar higher education in New York state. Several of these studies were directly concerned with administrative problems. Russell, Cowen and Paige (23) reported on the capital structure, current support and expenditures for higher education

in New York state, the relative standing of New York among the states in the current support of higher education, and the share of college costs borne by students. Russell and Paige (24) conducted a study to determine the extent of migration of college students to and from New York state, and attempted to identify the underlying factors.

The Organization of Higher Education

By 1942 over 40 percent of our liberal arts colleges had adopted some form of divisional organization. McGrath, Nystrom and Patmos (19) made a study of the various plans in operation as revealed by questionnaire replies from 122 divisionally organized institutions. They found that the number of divisions ranged from three to eight. Beginning with the basic three—the humanities, natural sciences and social sciences, additional divisions have appeared in this order: philosophy and religion, fine arts, physical education, foreign languages, and psychology and education. In about 90 percent of these institutions each division had a single administrative head, usually appointed by the president.

According to the investigators, the divisional type of organization possesses four major advantages: (a) it permits divisional "majors" to replace narrow and restricted departmental "majors"; (b) it promotes cooperation between related departments; (c) it eliminates duplication of courses and subjectmatter; and (d) it simplifies and facilitates administration. The authors admit that the divisional type of organization has weaknesses, altho they do not discuss them. They are confident that divisional organization has the greatest potentialities for improving the quality of educational service being rendered by our liberal arts colleges.

Several doctoral dissertations dealt with various phases of higher educational organization. Whitehead (34) made a study of Negro liberal arts college deans. Crosslin (8) surveyed the development of organization and administration in Texas institutions of higher learning. Inter-institutional cooperation in Southern higher education was studied by Boyce (5).

In the first of three studies of junior college administration, Koos (16) surveyed more than three-fourths of the public junior colleges in the United States to determine the titles and responsibilities of their administrative officers. He obtained his data by means of a "schedule" which was followed by a personal visit to more than fifty junior colleges with relatively complex forms of organization.

By interviewing the administrative officers in fifty-four junior colleges, Koos (17) next attempted to determine the kind of organization they preferred as well as the reasons for their preferences. This study indicated that less than one-third of the administrators preferred the separate two-year junior college; that only 8 percent preferred association with a high school; that almost 60 percent preferred the 6-4-4 plan with a separately housed junior college. Altho Koos admitted that a larger representation of junior colleges would have been desirable for increased reliability, he was

tho roly convinced that the interview technic was the only accurate method of obtaining trustworthy information for a study of this kind.

In his third study Koos (18) attempted to obtain specific data on the success of the junior colleges in the democratization of higher education. He followed-up almost 12,000 high-school graduates in fifty-seven communities, some with and some without local junior colleges. His data substantiated the hypothesis that democratization of higher education is greatest in communities with a local, public, tuition-free, four-year junior college.

Faculty Participation in Administration

Bogert (4) conducted an historical survey of faculty participation in university government. He found that the cycle of university government has run from its beginning when teachers were hired by the student guild, thru the stage of direct faculty control which still exists in England, thru the recent American period when faculty members were considered "employees" in fact and spirit, down to the latest innovation in which each trustee, administrative officer, and faculty member is encouraged to contribute his particular talents to various phases of organization and administration.

Roberts (22) made a study of inbreeding practiced in appointing college and university teachers and administrators.

Adams and Donovan (1) attempted to determine the extent to which faculty participation in administration was employed in leading American universities. Questionnaire replies were received from sixty-two university presidents. As might be expected, the returns indicated a wide variety of practices both with respect to the methods of obtaining faculty participation and the types of administrative problems in which the faculty participated. In general, it was found that more than half of the institutions permitted their faculties to determine strictly educational policies such as entrance and graduation requirements, while the trustees and administrative officers reserved final decision in all other matters.

Studies of Teacher Education

A Commission on Teacher Education was appointed in 1938 by the American Council on Education. Altho most of the Commission's field work was completed by 1942, its most significant findings were not published until the period covered by this issue of the REVIEW.

The Commission undertook a nationwide, cooperative project of experimentation, demonstration, and evaluation in teacher education. Some fifty individual colleges, universities, and state school systems participated in the three-year study; they were distributed over the entire country and represented various types of administrative organization. The numerous reports of the Commission did not deal with the results of formal research, but essentially with the outcomes of cooperative experiences—the testing

by group methods of educational theories and practices concerning teacher education.

The series of final reports of the Commission started coming off the press in 1944. Of the eight volumes in the series, four reported research which was particularly applicable to the organization and administration of higher education.

Troyer and Pace (27) described a cooperative study of evaluation in teacher-training institutions and treated such problems as initial student selection, orientation and guidance, general education, professional education, student teaching, follow-up studies of teaching success, and growth inservice. The experience of various institutions which have attacked these problems was described and commented on, with particular emphasis placed upon the technics, procedures, and purposes of evaluation.

Armstrong, Hollis, and Davis (2) reported their experiences in the Commission's program to improve the preparation of teachers in universities, teachers colleges, and colleges of liberal arts, and to assist in their inservice growth.

Perhaps the outstanding volume of the series, so far as research is concerned, was the critical evaluation of Ph.D. programs reported by Hollis (15). A statistical analysis of the educational and employment experiences of 22,509 persons who were awarded the Ph.D. degree during the decade 1931-40 demonstrated the responsibility of graduate schools for the preparation of educators and professional people outside of education.

These data, plus the results of an opinionnaire returned by Ph.D. holders and their employers, led Hollis to make two major conclusions concerning the improvement of Ph.D. programs: first, doctoral programs must be adjusted to post-doctoral needs, and, second, the graduate school must function as an integrated whole rather than an aggregate of competing departments. These conclusions were not original, for there was already a decided trend in these directions in a number of universities.

Another report, prepared by Prall (21) for the Commission on Teacher Education, was an outgrowth of the conviction that certain problems of teacher education would not lend themselves to successful attack by single institutions or school systems, but could be dealt with only thru the full cooperation of all the educational interests in a state. Accordingly, the Commission associated itself with groups representing institutions of higher learning, public schools, and state departments of education in seven statewide cooperative studies. The states were Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Michigan, up-state New York and West Virginia.

Prall's report (21) described the practical details of functioning democracy as employed in these cooperative studies. It was concerned with tested methods of exchange, communication, and cross-fertilization, as well as with the effects on personal and institutional morale of collaborative effort. Care was taken to point out the reasons for the relative success or failure of the several technics described.

The final report in the series (3) summarized the experiences and recom-

mendations of the Commission on Teacher Education with regard to the various aspects of teacher training and the processes found effective in its improvement. The Commission concluded its final report by citing trends in the direction of improved teacher preparation, inservice training, and inter-institutional cooperation.

As further evidence of the trend toward cooperative studies of teacher education, the Committee on the Preparation of High-School Teachers in Liberal Arts Colleges (7), appointed by the North Central Association, selected twenty-eight independent liberal arts colleges to participate in a cooperative study of their teacher-education programs. Stimulated by frequent group conferences and summer workshop, each college examined its own teacher-training functions, determined areas for productive study, and worked out its own method of attack. The results were then shared with other participating colleges so that all institutions would profit from the particular studies made on each campus.

Offner (20) made a study of the administrative procedures employed in making curriculum changes in the state teachers colleges of New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. His technic consisted of submitting a list of existing curriculum-making practices to a jury of teacher-education experts. After tabulating the evaluations of jury members, Offner formulated some administrative procedures for curriculum-making in teacher-training institutions. He furthermore suggested that additional studies along this line should attempt to determine the desirable functions of the state director of teacher education and the desirability of having each teachers college within a state devote its efforts exclusively to the preparation of teachers for particular age groups or subject fields.

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INTRODUCTION

As we passed from the cessation of major hostilities to the struggle to build a satisfying postwar pattern of life, efforts have been made to make peacetime applications of the mental hygiene ideas and technics developed in response to war needs. Among the wartime developments that can be reconverted for use in industry, education, and the professions are methods of selecting leaders and a cautious use of group screening devices for quick appraisal of certain characteristics. Group therapy is one of the most important of the new applications of psychiatric treatment.

Social conditions contributing to family disorganization, disturbed status, and delinquency form a background against which measures of the improvement of mental health must be considered. Unless verbally expressed social values are translated into action, we cannot expect personal or international peace.

Despite war conditions, mental health in schools and colleges has received considerable attention during the last three years. Clinical studies continue to emphasize the importance of an individual's early experiences, especially parent-child relationships. Among the interrelated conditions conducive to the mental health of the school child and adolescent are the curriculum, methods of teaching, policies of promotion and marking, and enriched life experiences. Research and clinical studies reinforce the point of view that an understanding of individuals plus effective counseling and group work is basic to good mental health. Clinical studies especially give insight into conditions that influence adjustment and into the devious ways in which children and adolescents try to come to grips with reality.

Beyond the school walls, home and school conditions affect the mental health of individuals. A beginning has been made in studying the influence of forms of government and political systems on mental health. Likewise the effects of the war, of socio-economic and class status, and of different cultures are being explored. Delinquency has been given special attention and numerous programs for the prevention and treatment of delinquency have been described, but not evaluated by research workers who can view them objectively.

A valuable new feature of this issue is the chapter on contributions to mental hygiene from the field of comparative psychology. Experiments with the lower animals suggest ways in which behavior disorders and seizure states are induced by demanding excessively fine discriminations, by confronting the animal with impossible tasks, by creating conflicts, by imposing restraint that prevents the animal from substituting other ways out of the situation. Of the various methods of treatment, the most effective involved self-direction on the part of the individual in making his own readaptation to the situation.

The tendency to experiment in this field without adequate instruments for measuring results is still strong. Moreover, the complexity of counseling

and psychotherapy, including the individual differences in response to different methods of diagnosis and treatment makes a truly controlled experiment practically impossible.

Progress has been made in the clinical use of psychological tests and in the development of screening devices. More complete and dynamic clinical histories enable the worker to evaluate the therapeutic processes employed. The gap between the definition of personality as a dynamic organization and its measurement is being bridged by the study of syndromes, patterns, and clusters of measurable aspects. Of the various kinds of therapy, shock therapy is being used more conservatively and cautiously; group therapy, more widely and enthusiastically.

In the field of health education investigations relating to school health policies, administration, and content of health education have been made. Methods of motivation and teaching is a wide open fertile field for research.

Underlying school learning and health are the school health services. During this three-year period the educational aspects of school health service have been emphasized and research has shown that the teacher is competent to carry out his important role in the health program.

Evidence has been presented of greater individual growth in height and weight during the past fifty years. Altho the control of communicable diseases has not yet been achieved, experimental work in air sanitation by means of ultraviolet rays, germicidal sprays, and dust-suppressive measures is promising. The evaluation of school health services, health education, and physical education has led to the development of special statistical technics and newer methods of measuring health status, attitudes, behavior, and physical skills.

Some progress has been made in the quantitative assessment of physical fitness, motor skill, and general bodily efficiency. Evidence of the effectiveness of physical training programs geared to individual needs is accumulating. In the newer field of rehabilitation thru physical education activities, practice and theory are paving the way for research. This is the most recent issue of the REVIEW in which the contribution of physical education to health has been reviewed.

In most of the other chapters a continuity has been maintained by keeping the same titles and in several chapters the same authors as in the two previous issues. This issue covers references from July 1, 1943 to July 1, 1946.

RUTH STRANG, *Chairman,*
Committee on Mental and Physical Health.

CHAPTER I

Trends in Mental Hygiene

JOHN D. M. GRIFFIN and WILLIAM LINE

THE LAST three years have seen the climax and the close of World War II, and the subsequent chaos of a world left weary, cynical, and struggling to resume life on a peacetime pattern. While "peace" is always a relative term, the year just past can hardly be called peaceful, save in the sense that major hostilities have disappeared from the world scene. In their stead, however, there exists a seething restlessness, a bitter and irritable distrust among individuals, groups, and nations.

In such a time as this, workers in the field of mental hygiene are particularly challenged. So many events of major social and emotional interest are happening, that there is difficulty in finding time to take stock, or to develop a perspective. Yet those disciplines which come together in the mental hygiene interest must indeed assume the responsibility which is basically theirs, and clarify to the utmost their immediate and long-term objectives. Today, as never before, world sanity hangs on the virility of the dynamic social sciences, and on the direction charted by them.

Changing Interests in Mental Hygiene

Looking, first, at the current scene, one finds many evidences of changing emphasis in mental hygiene activities. During the war years, interest was focused on problems of military selection, and on the development of emergency and short forms of treatment for psychiatric casualties. Recently there has been a swing towards problems of rehabilitation and reconversion, with serious efforts at adapting the experience and technical advances gained in military settings to the needs of civilian life. Similarly, industrial mental hygiene has had to swerve from its emphasis on emergency selection of workers and on efficiency and morale under wartime motivation, to the far more difficult and subtle problem of interpersonal relations under postwar conditions; and the measure of this challenge is reflected in a degree of labor unrest far beyond that which was popularly anticipated.

Second, the mental hygiene workers themselves have suffered a marked change. During the war, they were mobilized by an international emergency, and had to cope, rather frantically at times, with practical problems of great moment. Having once emerged from the cloistered protection of the universities or from the placid despair of the mental hospital service, they are loath to return to any setting where their contribution assumes academic, philosophical, or merely custodial guise. They demand practical scope in the world of affairs—in industry, education, government. Even the tangible successes of private practice are satisfying only in a measure; they

must be supplemented by realistic application of the insight gained thru individual psychotherapy to the body politic itself.

Third, while education has had little opportunity during the war years to develop new technics or make striking advances of mental hygiene importance, nevertheless the educationist has been aware of the changes which have been tried. In consequence we are in the midst of a period wherein education is engaged in putting many of the ideas and technics tried in wartime to the test of experimental investigation and peacetime application.

The Effect of the War on Mental Hygiene

The general consensus seems to be that the actual physical violence of warfare has had less effect on the emotional stability and mental health of people, whether as fighting men or as home-front workers, than have the social and emotional factors of separation, evacuation and broken families.

Several authors have vigorously stressed the importance of selection. Technics employed in the psychiatric selection of officers have been shown to be particularly applicable in the fields of industry, education, and the professions (8, 4). During the war, psychologists were busy developing short objective group methods for screening service candidates. The practical use of such tests in civilian fields has already been demonstrated. This emphasis on short objective nonprojective tests is not without its dangers, however. There seems to be a tendency for many psychologists, and laymen who call themselves psychologists, who have had some experience with these short tests in the military services, to exploit them in the field of business and industry. The experience of World War I should be remembered. Psychological tests received a great deal of attention and publicity at that time only to be largely discredited subsequently. Unless psychologists and personnel workers recognize the importance of the qualitative evaluation of the individual by means of personal appraisal during the interview, or during the individually administered test, the whole fabric of psychological selection and placement may fall apart (6).

In reviewing the advances achieved in psychiatric treatment during the war, one is left a little skeptical that anything really new was discovered. Nevertheless, it is undoubtedly true that many new ways of applying old technics were demonstrated and have been shown to be useful in civilian life. Among the most important of these is group therapy. This had its beginning and was well established before the war (18). Group therapy now can hardly be described as a single technic. There are as many variations in actual procedure as there are psychotherapeutic points of view. It is an interesting fact however, that in spite of these differences in approach, all methods of psychotherapy in groups involve not only the effect of a leader on an audience of patients, but the effect of the group itself on each individual patient and the effect of individuals in the group on each other. This social and emotional relationship which has been shown to be so valuable therapeutically can be used with children in the classroom. Indeed the

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method of using this type of discussion in teaching has long been recognized as a sound pedagogical method. The new trend in applying this technic to the classroom situation would seem to lie in the importance of estimating and utilizing the effect of different loadings of different types of personalities within the group. Thus, the Orthogenic School in Chicago is experimenting with the idea, long recognized by Fritz Redl and others, of mixing an appropriate number of aggressive children (for example) with children of a recessive type in an effort to capitalize on the therapeutic and prophylactic aspects of the internal structure and interpersonal relationships within the group.

Another development emanating from military experience was the intense effort to capitalize on the very intense medical interest in psychiatric aspects of rehabilitation. This was the keynote of a valuable conference of psychiatrists, sponsored by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, at Hershey, Pennsylvania, in February, 1945 (5). The Veterans Administration has been quick to capitalize on this broad interest and is establishing excellent rehabilitation services which include not only clinical treatment facilities but mental hygiene units as well.

Of interest here to the educationist is the counseling service established by the Canadian universities in association with the Department of Veterans' Affairs. In an extension of rehabilitation counseling, begun prior to discharge, and continued during the period of reentry into civilian life, all ex-service personnel taking advantage of university training benefits have access to an advisory bureau, staffed by professional competent workers. Such a setting provides the basis of careful and intimate liaison between University Health Service and the teaching faculties, between academic and employment phases of the training courses. Its outcomes should be of great significance to the revitalizing of college mental hygiene and to educational guidance generally.

Turning for a moment to the broader fields of general medicine and social work, one may observe an intensification of interest on psychosomatic problems, as a result of military experience. The training programs in medical schools, both undergraduate and postgraduate, and in schools of social work have been modified as a result of this trend. Much more emphasis has been placed now on an appreciation of personality development and its influence on the clinical picture whether of physical symptoms or of social disability (16, 19).

Effects of War on Social and Economic Conditions and Mental Health

There have been some interesting studies of the effects of the war on social and family life, which in their significance in terms of postwar developments must be regarded as important as those emanating from the armed services. Levy (9) demonstrated, for example, that the effect of war on family life can be either beneficial in the sense of providing a general

stabilizing influence and a better economic situation, or it can be demoralizing and shattering, depending as one might anticipate, on the resources within the personality makeup of the individuals concerned. The effect of the very tight labor market during the war was to provide a state of almost full employment. Many thousands of people who were previously regarded as unemployable, either because of physical or mental handicaps, were put to work (12). Women and adolescents were also employed to a greater extent than ever before. Reconversion has substituted the more poorly paid peacetime factory work for the preferred highly paid war jobs. Women are generally unwilling to release the advantageous position of being independent wage earners in order to return to the role of the housewife. On the other hand, women are often unwilling to work for comparatively low rates of pay. Adolescents plucked too early from school and given streamlined training in war-plant trades are reluctant to return to school.

Many factors of this kind are at the root of climbing delinquency rates. Probably one of the most important indices of the social, emotional, and moral maladjustment of the nation is the juvenile delinquency rate. All kinds of factors, reasons, and excuses have been advanced to explain why there should be so much criminal behavior (1). Everything has been suggested from radio programs to the tendency of the adolescent to emulate the fancied behavior of his father or older brother in the fighting services. Many worthwhile and constructive plans have been put into effect in communities across the country. Most of these efforts have taken the form of increasing the facilities for leisure time activities for the age groups involved. It would appear that while supervised leisure time is important as a prophylactic measure, it can hardly be regarded as a basic remedy. Delinquency, like neurotic illness, is a symptom of personal maladjustment.

Increased Public Interest in Mental Hygiene and Psychiatry

It is of some interest to note the increasing consciousness of the public towards psychiatry and mental hygiene. It is astonishing to note the number of current movies and radio programs which are based on psychiatric themes. Some of these are gloriously but unwittingly burlesqued. In others however, a serious attempt has been made to obtain professional technical advice. Psychiatry has even crept into the everyday conversation and jokes of the people. In this setting of heightened public consciousness, the publicity which a year or two ago was given to the psychiatric war casualty found a ready response. Some of the effects of this publicity were hardly constructive and the anxiety and concern which were engendered in the families of servicemen and in industry, concerning the possible difficulties of rehabilitation, were exaggerated out of all proportion to the facts.

More recently the woefully inadequate facilities for the care and treatment of the insane in our state mental hospitals has received dramatic publicity (13). Typical of the more constructive outcomes of such exposés is the organization of a lively citizens' group in Ohio, The Ohio Mental

Hygiene Association. This organization seems determined to utilize a sympathetic public opinion in order to improve and renovate the state mental health services. Similar movements are starting in other states. In interesting contrast to the actual conditions in mental hospitals, is the recent publication of the American Psychiatric Association of "Standards for Psychiatric Hospitals and Out-Patient Clinics" (20). The Association has recognized that these standards are presently met by few if any public mental hospitals, but have established them as goals to be achieved if possible within ten years. It is probable however that unless the attitude of the lay public evolves from one of curiosity and morbid interest to one of serious determination with recognition of the necessity for action, these standards will remain goals rather than achievements.

The Future of Mental Hygiene

Having traced a few of these trends in mental hygiene, is it possible to sketch future developments? What is the role of mental hygiene in the postwar period? Psychiatrists have not been backward about telling the public in a forthright and dramatic way about the dangers of a continuing "laissez-faire" attitude (2, 10, 14, 17, 21, 22). They have pointed out that unless the chimera of individual selfishness is forsaken, not only will mental health elude us, but the achievement of peace and international goodwill may become impossible. Various psychiatrists have placed their critical finger on a variety of weaknesses in our mental health habits. The American emphasis on an over-sentimentalized and commercialized "Mother," with resultant emotional immaturity on the part of our younger generation, has been described by Strecker (22). He has shown how this dependency on "Mom" can lead to social irresponsibility, selfishness and physical ineffectiveness, ill health, and low national morale. Chisholm (2) on the other hand, put the emphasis on the training and education of children. He stressed the importance of teaching children how to think logically and rationally, with an appreciation of the basic assumptions which they are making before accepting any hypothesis, theory, belief, or faith. For him the fancies of fairy tales and the dogma of religion can be equally harmful influences on the mental habits of the child. They lead to the habit of unrealistic wishful thinking which has played an important part in causing repeated world wars.

Summary

First, there is a notable tendency for the chief disciplines involved to take stock. Education, for example, has its Harvard Report (3) and its searching essays by Livingstone (11).

Second, in recognizing the challenge, there is a marked tendency for each discipline to regard itself as basic to the whole field of progress in

mental hygiene. This is particularly true of those disciplines which have had active partnership in war affairs (15).

Third, and growing out of the first two, there is a tendency away from specialization in the division-of-labor sense, and towards partnership, co-ordination or overlapping of the several disciplines. Particularly noticeable has been the intimacy of psychiatry and psychology in service mental hygiene and in the development of clinical testing, and of particular prom-ise, the extensive collaboration among social and biological sciences in social medicine. Similarly we find economics, sociology, and psychology coming together in realistic research institutes of industrial relations.

Fourth, totalitarianism has shocked us into a reemphasis upon the indi-vidual, the individual self-consciousness, and value of life, as of basic significance to all social services (2). Hence the general search for satis-factory understanding of the psychodynamics of personal development.

Fifth, this emphasis on individual personal life is happily grounded in a heightened social consciousness, stimulated by the world experiences of the past decade. It is certainly to be hoped that the sincere and realistic determination to place social purpose high in the scale of values—a deter-mination that greatly characterizes ex-service personnel—will not be forced by frustration and disillusionment to give way to self-centered individual-ism. The greatest task of all confronting mental hygiene is probably this one, of keeping alive the conviction that the mental-social disciplines can and must point the way to the good life, and in so doing chart the course of development for the great society.

Sixth, in addition to the general points made above, Stevenson (21) emphasized the following developments:

a. The public mental hospital is suffering serious deterioration, which raises the question whether the system as now constructed can persist.

b. Federal legislation, giving extensive authorization for expenditure of funds under the U. S. Public Health Service, was passed in July, 1946. It provides for training, research, public education, and the initiation of clinical services.

c. A drastic shift is taking place in the field of psychiatric education in order that the general practitioner rather than the specialist in psychiatry may be benefited by the undergraduate curriculum. This means a shift in the focus of teaching from the psychoses to the psychoneuroses.

d. While teamwork between psychiatrist, psychologist, psychiatric social worker, and others had been established in child guidance clinics, it became a pattern widely used in the armed forces and has been carried subsequently into many civilian services, including the public mental hospitals.

e. The Veterans Administration has adopted the team basis of operation and has undertaken professional training on a wider and more seriously conceived basis than has ever existed before. On the other hand, it has not completely solved its inability to give outpatient service to the man disabled in line of duty, altho it is giving considerable service to the veteran whose disability is not service-connected.

f. Group therapy came in for extensive experimentation by psychiatrists, psycholo-gists, and social workers in the armed forces and some of this is being carried over into civilian services. This increased attention made much more evident the diversity of group therapy.

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CHAPTER II

Mental Hygiene in Family Life

HAROLD H. ANDERSON

DURING the past three years there has been a definite trend toward greater emphasis on the environment as a factor in mental hygiene. Examples of this trend may be noted in several areas of family life, in the research relating to nutrition, feeding, and food problems, in the studies which have dealt with many aspects of child care, and in several attempts to in-investigate the relationship between mental health and general home conditions.

Nutrition and Food Problems

First, consider the studies on nutrition, feeding, and food problems. Spock (42) concluded that the basic cause of feeding problems is the mother's anxiety. The great proportion of feeding problems, he said, begin in the first two years of life. Occasions when feeding may become a problem include the time of the introduction of solid foods in the child's diet, the period after illness when the appetite is slow to return, or at forced weaning from the bottle around one year. Few children, he found, lose their appetites spontaneously after the age of four or five years. Baldwin (3) rated seventy-two children on three aspects of their feeding behavior, appetite, finicalness, and table behavior and compared these ratings with other variables as to physical status, home environment, and the child's personality. MacKenzie (28) discovered that a group of 355 bright elementary-school children had better nutritional status than 357 slow children.

Child Training

Another example of the emphasis on environment as a factor in mental hygiene is the research in several areas of child training. Skinner (40) described his mechanical baby tender; a closed, insulated, crib-size compartment, with heat and humidity controls, and a roller-towel arrangement for a sheet ten yards long, sufficient to last a week. Huschka (25) reported the training in voluntary control of urination in 215 problem children, concluding that dryness before the age of two may be considered premature. Aldrich, Sung, and Knop (1) found a negative correlation between crying and nursing care of newly-born infants: the more care, the less crying. Read (35) arrived at two conclusions of interest to parents. Using the Stogdill-Goddard questionnaire, Read studied the attitudes of parents and compared them with the children's behavior as rated on sixty-seven traits of the Read-Conrad *Abbreviated Behavior Inventory for Nursery School Children*. Child behavior was found unrelated to parents' views

regarding desirable child behavior, but was positively related to liberalism in views on parental control. Prevey (32) reported that among 100 families boys received better training than girls in the use of money. She listed forty-five references. Bunker (10) concluded that children will not participate in sports in later life unless fundamental motor skills and favorable attitudes toward play are established before the high-school years.

Childhood Traits and Mental Health

A number of studies have continued the search for later effects of factors appearing in childhood. Gardner and Goldman (20) studied the preenlistment histories of 500 consecutive unselected sailors confined to disciplinary barracks and of 200 sailors who had never been subjected to disciplinary action in the Navy. Seven factors, in order of their appearance in the disciplinary cases and relatively infrequent in the control group were: broken home, truancy, expelled from school, retarded three or more years in school, persistent enuresis, runaway civilian arrests, and atypical sexuality.

From intensive life histories of twenty-five college women selected because they were typical of a larger group of 100 cases, Roberts and Fleming (38) reported that in every person a nucleus of traits persisted from childhood to adulthood. While some traits fluctuated, there was more persistence than change. Both case studies and statistical analysis showed that personality is related to the kind of relationship existing in the home.

From clinical data in an institution for delinquent boys Church (12) found that success in treatment depended on the quality of the boy's interpersonal experiences in infancy and childhood. In case records of twenty-seven children who later became psychotic, Friedlander (18) discovered in the background of both dementia praecox and psychopathic personality patients parents who had been either extremely rejecting, over-solicitous, or over-protective. She also found extremes in home discipline and friction.

"Only" children in three college freshman classes seemed to Dyer (17) to be as well adjusted as other children, and were found by Banister and Rayden (5) in about equal proportions among groups of "normal" elementary-school children and children referred to the Cambridge, England, Child Guidance Clinic.

Occupational level was not a factor in the maladjustment of 4450 school-aged children, according to Dawson (14); more than half of these cases, coming to several clinics in England, revealed unsettled homes, parental dissatisfaction, and marital unrest. Among six cases of boys eleven to fourteen years of age involved in homicide, Patterson (31) found outstanding characteristics to be mother-attachment and father-hatred.

Family quarrels were also reported by about one-third of several thousand high-school pupils in a study by Punke (34), the main bases of the conflicts being economic matters, social life of the children, and personal habits of the parents.

An outstanding study of parent-child relations is Levy's (26) monograph on maternal overprotection. Levy described the method used in selecting twenty cases for detailed study, the types of overprotection encountered, special problems of the overprotected child, and methods of treatment of child and parent. Wolberg (45) differentiated two types of parental rejection; rejection of a hostile nature, and rejection in the form of neglect. Clothier (13) discussed the treatment of the rejected child, pointing out that guidance clinics use a variety of poorly defined psychotherapeutic technics in attempting to modify "destructive maternal attitudes" affecting the child.

Encouraging to a mental hygiene reviewer are a number of studies attempting to define and measure *positive* family relationships. Baldwin, Kalhorn, and Breese (4) used a combination of clinical and statistical methods and the Champney parent behavior rating scale. Two of three central syndromes were labeled "Democracy in the Home," and "Acceptance of Child." The third was "Indulgence." Seven common patterns of behavior were described in detail with illustrative case material. Another study which illustrates the range of positive approach to family relations is that by Bossard (9) who listed thirteen arguments for the value of owning domestic animals.

Merrill (30) made a direct observational study of the stimulus properties of the mother's behavior toward her preschool child in a standardized play situation. Data in eleven of thirty-two categories were analyzed. Thirty mothers were divided equally into experimental and control groups. At a second session the experimental mothers were given to understand that the child's previous play performance had not realized his capabilities. From first to second sessions the experimental group showed a significant increase in directing, interfering, criticizing, and structurizing-a-change-in-activity types of behavior.

The Henrys (23) studied family attitudes of Pilagá Indians thru the medium of doll play of children.

Dinkel (15) constructed a scale to test attitudes of 1006 college students and 318 high-school students toward supporting aged parents. The obligation to support aged parents was held more strongly by Catholic and rural groups than by Protestant and urban groups, respectively. The degree of hardship affected the attitudes of all groups. Dinkel concluded that the obligation of children to support aged and needy parents is apparently no longer well established in the mores.

Special problems of parents and of children are represented in three studies. Loughlin and Mosenthal (27) discussed personality disturbances in 114 diabetic children. Three-fifths of the children maintained normality in all respects. Price and Putnam (33) illustrated with case histories their discussion of the effect of intrafamily discord on the prognosis of epilepsy. Rheingold (37) summarized factors involved in interpreting mental retardation to parents.

Home Conditions

Research during the past three years as noted earlier has revealed a growing emphasis on the interaction of the individual and his environment. Examples of such approaches are the monograph by Washburn (44) reporting three levels of psychotherapy in the treatment of parents of children enrolled in a nursery school, and reports of group psychotherapy with parents by Amster (2) and by Durkin, Galatzer, and Hirsch (16).

Case records of forty-four children who had at least one alcoholic parent were reviewed by Holden (24) who concluded that treatment is less likely to be successful with this group than with unselected clinic referrals. Roe, Burks, and Mittelmann (39) reported on the adult adjustment of foster children whose parents had been alcoholic or psychotic. In a follow-up study of 744 children, seventy-eight who had been placed in foster homes before the age of ten were available for study. Altho one-third of the children showed evidence of various sorts of maladjustment, and altho 40 percent of the foster homes were rated unsatisfactory in emotional background, the children showed later satisfactory adjustment, with few exceptions leading demonstrably useful lives. The authors reported that those whose foster parents loved them as children and were not severe with them seemed to have a better chance of achieving a well-adjusted personality. They added a further note that the high incidence of alcoholism and psychosis reported in the offspring of alcoholics cannot be explained solely on the basis of any specific heredity.

Psychological factors involved in the first sight of the child by prospective adoptive parents were discussed and illustrated with case studies by Bernard (6). Increasing evidence on the adverse effects of institutional life is shown in such studies as that by Goldfarb (22) who had two groups of forty children each. One group included children who had been in an institution from early infancy to about three years; the other group had been in foster homes from early infancy. Except for withdrawal behavior and anxieties related to intrafamily relationships in which foster home children tended to exceed the institutional children, the foster home children tended to show lower incidences of the several kinds of problem behavior included in two checklists. Banister and Rayden (5) reported a strong association between problem children and broken homes, but they suggested that this association may to a considerable extent be due to the psychological effects of instability in the parents.

Housing and Its Effect on Mental Health

The John B. Pierce Foundation supported a series of studies attempting to discover what kinds of houses would better fit the needs of man. Among these, Blum and Candee (7) reported on family behavior, attitudes and possessions. By a very ingenious photographic method they were able to record the design of cubic areas for different common household activities.

How much space does a man need in the morning to put on his sox? They found the answer, for certain men. But they pointed out that the sum of the "activity envelopes" does not make a home. Remmers and Kerr (36) also worked on the problem of evaluating the home. By means of the American Home Scale they studied the homes of 16,445 eighth-grade children in forty-two cities in twenty states. They reported that as a direct and valid measure of the goodness of living, functional income, and personal factors, the American Home Scale compared favorably with Thorndike's scales.

Children in Wartime

Among the many publications about children in wartime, the few which merit consideration as research were mainly observational studies, the analysis of data from questionnaires, or the tabulation of items in clinical records. Carter (11) summarized and evaluated the methods of studies on attitudes toward war which appeared since 1931. Gardner (20) dealt with five aspects of child health: physical, mental, social, spiritual, and social ill health (delinquency). From a review of some of the literature and a few clinical and court statistics he concluded that the health and behavior of children in the United States had not changed much for the worse since our entrance into the war, except in older adolescent groups. Sontag (41), writing on war and fetal-maternal relationship, suggested that susceptibility to disease in infants may be due to the chemical physiological aspects of severely disturbed maternal emotions. The effects of war, as such, on children have been minimized by such studies as that by Bonte and Musgrove (8), Gardner and Spencer (21), Twente (43), and McClure (29).

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CHAPTER III

Mental Health in Schools and Colleges

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RECENT years have witnessed accelerated attempts at articulation between mental hygiene and the newer curriculums, particularly at the elementary-school level. Child development, learning readiness, mental health, and personality development are now frequently treated as part and parcel of the curriculum, rather than as distinct and separate entities. Some recent municipal and state educational publications read more like mental hygiene outlines than curriculum bulletins. Publications from Indiana (24) and New York City (7) illustrate this trend.

The Mental Health of the Preschool Child

The preschool group figures in many investigations attempting to trace personality deviations in later years. Spock (45) traced behavior problems of later childhood to parent-child tensions growing out of everyday situations in the early years. Kestenberg (26) found that separation of the child from parents early in life is more traumatic than later separation, and usually results in regressive behavior. Goldfarb (17) conducted seven research studies of psychologically deprived children in institutions and found that "the pernicious effects of the early experience persist even in the face of careful placement in selected foster homes, casework supervision, and, in some cases, psychiatric treatment." These well-controlled studies have tremendous implications for the mental health of children.

Child guidance workers have found a direct relationship between school phobias in the young child, confirmed truancy in the older child, and parent-child relationships. Klein (27) concluded that traumatic factors in early childhood, particularly punitive parents, coupled with increased tension at school, were responsible for the development of school phobias, and Edelston (14), working with young hospitalized children, came to a similar conclusion. The latter found that rejection, whether real or neurotic, produced anxieties in the children when they were separated from their parents. Washburn (48) approached the same problem positively and came to the conclusion that the general source of difficulty between parents and young children was the conflict between the child and civilizing influences. In this study, technics for therapy are discussed. All studies agreed that the parent-child relationship is one of the most influential factors in the emotional development of the child, and that the earlier in the life of the child this relationship is disturbed, the more profound and lasting will the personality disturbance be.

The Mental Health of the Elementary-School Child

Integration of elementary education and mental hygiene is well illustrated by a five-year experiment in elementary education in seventy New York City schools, subsequently extended to all the 700 city schools. Loftus and his associates (31) described this program from the standpoint of democratic living, personality growth, emotional security, and other mental hygiene aspects. "Helping Teachers Understand Children" (3), an extensive report by the American Council on Education on the training of teachers is a study of children's personalities as related to education.

Many studies dealing with elementary-school children treat various aspects of personality adjustment. Adams (1) questioned forty-two teachers from different schools about wholesome and unwholesome practices in their schools, and concluded that many practices caused inferiority feelings and fears in children. Sandin (41) conducted a study of promoted and non-promoted pupils, and concluded that nonpromotion was associated with many symptoms of poor adjustment. Lantz (30), using experimental procedures with nine-year-old elementary-school boys, found that experience with success resulted in better subsequent performance and in better personal-social adjustment, while failure served as a depressant, poorer subsequent performance, increased tension, and poor personal-social adjustment. Zander (50) induced frustration in a learning situation of fifth and sixth grade pupils, and determined that frustration causes nonadjustive behavior. Northway (36), utilizing the now popular social acceptability test, found that those falling in the lowest quartile of the test were usually shy, passive, and unliked, or noisy, rebellious, boastful, and likewise unliked.

Special Methods To Aid Adjustment

Various technics are employed for improving the classroom adjustment and mental health of pupils. One of the most widely used of the newer methods is the human relations class. Bullis, O'Malley, and Jastak (9) believe that mental disturbance may be prevented by bringing to the attention of children mental health concepts thru which they may formulate healthful attitudes. The method consists of classroom discussions on such topics as fear, tolerance, teamwork, emotional conflicts, and the like, using stories. books, newspapers, and other media. The social acceptability test is frequently used in connection with these classes, and the authors used it not only for determining social relationships in the classroom, but also for clues as to methods of influencing behavior and opinions among pupils.

The psychodrama continues to be used as a therapeutic device. Shoobs (42) found that this method served to decrease truancy and other antisocial behavior, and recommended it for personality and character development.

Flory, Alden, and Simmons (16), studying fourth-grade pupils with the California Personality Test, found that those who fell in the lowest quartile improved their scores to the median after one or two years when informa-

tion about these children was supplied to their teachers with the suggestion that they use their own devices for better personality development. Beckmann (6) used psychiatric observation technics to determine the nature of children in three "opportunity" classes for problem children. He found that the nine-twelve-year group suffered from primary behavior disorders; the ten-fourteen-year group showed a large proportion of neuroses; while in the twelve-fifteen-year group, delinquency and neurotic delinquency predominated. He also found that neurotic and delinquent behavior patterns were reduced by enriching life experiences.

Information about Problem Children

Wallin (47) obtained information from 145 teachers coming from 124 schools in twenty-five states about the availability of psychological or psychiatric services for school children and found the picture very discouraging. He concluded that almost no progress had been made in this direction in thirteen years. He recommended that teacher training in mental hygiene and child development be utilized to compensate for this lack. Cummings (11), studying emotional symptoms in young school children, concluded that overprotected children show "nervous" difficulties, while neglected children show more aggressive behavior, together with cruelty, lying, and stealing. Roe, Burks, and Mittleman (39) have made one of the most elaborate long-term follow-up studies of children and their conclusions have important implications for mental hygiene. Following up children of alcoholic and psychotic parents more than twenty years after foster home placement, they found that not a single child of psychotic parents became psychotic, and not one child of alcoholic parents was alcoholic. Practically all of them were leading useful lives, altho there was evidence of emotional disturbance among 30 percent. Personality adjustment was directly related to love and lack of severity in the foster home.

Mental Hygiene in the Secondary School

The mental health of adolescence has received extended treatment by psychologists, educators, and social scientists in two compendiums (8, 35) devoted to results of findings on this age group. Much of the research on adolescence concerned itself with methods of study and with aids in the classroom.

Methods of Studying Mental Hygiene Problems in School

Jones (25), in a longitudinal research study, presented a detailed treatment of a boy over a seven-year period, beginning at age eleven. He was one of 200 children studied at the Institute of Child Welfare, and is interesting not only for the method employed to study personality, but also for the illustration of the growth process and the problems of adolescence.

A very different approach was used by Mooney (32), who employed a checklist in a study of community differences in problems of adolescence.

Several reports containing suggestions to teachers for studying children were presented. Alsop (2) suggested the application of the Army methods for recognizing and helping psychoneurotic students. Roody (40) proposed the use of the Plot Completion Test for the same purpose. This test constitutes a framework from which attitudes are determined, as well as a basis for discussions in modifying attitudes. Kuhlen and Lee (28) studied social acceptability in grades six, nine, and twelve, and demonstrated the use of a social acceptability scale and a "Guess Who" test as measures of personality. Smith (43), in a study of 103 high-school students, used factors in the selection of friends, and concluded that friendship is a form of ego satisfaction.

Studies of maladjustment include that of Demerath (12) on the experiences and characteristics of twenty adolescent schizophrenics, and that of Wittman and Huffman (49), on the characteristics of psychotic, psychoneurotic, delinquent, and normally adjusted adolescents. Kvaraceus (29), from a study of 761 delinquents, mostly in grades six to ten, concluded that frustrating experiences within the school are a major cause of delinquency, and outlined what the school can do about curriculum, teacher training, child study, special services, and community cooperation, in developing a mental hygiene program.

Aids in the Classroom

Attempts to implement mental hygiene findings in high-school programs are found in guides to teachers as well as in experimental programs. Crow and Crow (10) described specific mental hygiene technics and materials for use in schools, and presented seventy case histories of adolescent boys and girls. These authors, among others, have also written a high-school text in psychology to help student adjustment. One of a series of resource units for high-school use in the mental hygiene of racial and cultural conflict is that of Powdermaker and Storen (37). Hellerstein (20) experimented with various "Adjustment Group" programs for failing students in the regular classes of the junior high school. Removal of pressure, lessening of competition, diagnostic study, an individualized sympathetic approach, and modified teaching methods, employed over a period of one year, decreased failure and discipline problems, and increased achievement.

The problems of freedom and authority were treated by Hacker and Geleerd (18), who found that disturbed adolescents showed better results when not given unlimited freedom. This has implications for education, and is in line with the findings of Lewin and Lippitt on the destructive effects of both the autocratic and anarchic groups, as compared with the wholesome effects of the democratically organized group.

Mental Hygiene in College

Altho numerous studies of college students have been reported in recent years, most of them can be classified in a few categories. Typical of elaborate studies of "normal" students is that of Heath (19), in which the clinical approach was utilized to obtain psychiatric, anthropometric, medical, psychological, and sociometric data. Another group of studies, typified by that of Houston and Marzolf (22), used a personality or problem checklist, usually Mooney's, to determine which students required special assistance in personality or emotional adjustment. The clinical approach to the study of college students by psychiatrists and psychologists has become more widespread. Murphy and Ladd (34) reported an extensive investigation, at Sarah Lawrence College, by the case study method, of common adjustment problems of students, emphasizing particularly the role of emotional factors in learning at college. Munroe (33) continuing her studies with the Rorschach Inspection Technic at the same institution, found the Rorschach Adjustment Rating, which is a measure of personality integration, to correlate well with teachers' observations and with later adjustments of the students. These ratings predicted academic failure better than did the American Council Psychological Examination scores. Fischer (15), using tests of frustration, measures of personality, grades and intelligence level, confirmed the findings of many studies that emotional factors exert a strong influence on failure to achieve scholastically. Hill (21), working with college freshmen who were relatively inactive in extracurriculum activities, demonstrated the value of individual counseling for social adjustment, when, after a year, the experimental group was active in greater numbers than a control group that had not been treated in this way.

Mental Hygiene and Teaching

Many writers clamor for the selection of teachers with "wholesome" and "well-adjusted" personalities, but very few do very much about selecting such personalities. Research in this area deals principally with methods of changing teachers after they have been selected. Di Michael (13) showed that a course in educational guidance did not change the attitudes of experienced teachers toward children's behavior problems, while a course in mental hygiene did. Baruch (5) demonstrated that teachers and teachers-in-training, after receiving training in the acceptance of children's and parents' emotional problems, showed great improvement in the acceptance of such problems; such improvement was generally related to the teacher's personal adjustment. Symonds (46) found that teachers solve their problems fortuitously, and that aid from another person would have helped them solve their personal problems more promptly and surely. Retan (38) found that, altho students judged emotionally unstable are less likely to be rated good teachers later than are those formerly rated as stable, many of the unstable ones nevertheless become good teachers later; therefore,

studies of emotional stability among prospective teachers should be used to aid them in their adjustment rather than for their elimination.

Comprehensive Reports

Altho numerous comprehensive reports of mental hygiene research studies have appeared in recent years, only three will be mentioned. Snyder (44) evaluated the literature on mental hygiene at the various school levels; Barker, Kounin and Wright (4) republished thirty-five studies selected as significant by a poll of experts; and Hunt (23) edited thirty-five representative research reports on personality and behavior disorders to form a basic handbook. These and similar encyclopedic volumes, of which there have been many, now make available research material formerly obtained only after painful search thru periodical literature.

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CHAPTER IV

Mental Health in Community Life

RALPH H. OJEMANN

Sɪɴᴄᴇ the period under review covers the close of the war and the first postwar year, we find the problems of readjustment, rehabilitation, the effect of the war, and delinquency claiming a considerable share of research workers' time. Particular emphasis has been placed on studies of the effect of government and political systems on mental health and adjustment.

Effects of Forms of Government and Political Systems

Leighton, Spicer, and others (32) in an interesting article pointed out how basic knowledge concerning human behavior and motivation can be incorporated in plans of government and public administration. In a more extensive study, Leighton (31) applied the analysis of human behavior to the administration of the Poston Japanese Relocation Center in Arizona. He analyzed the discontent which was appearing in the community at the time the study was undertaken and then proceeded to show how, from the factors underlying behavior, a program of administration was developed which met the needs of the members of the community more adequately. The findings of this study are not only applicable to relocation centers but have great import for all forms of administration.

Several studies of the Nazi system appeared during the period under review. Abel (1) suggested several approaches to the analysis and understanding of German conduct. Wittenberg (47) described the problem of understanding children reared under the Nazi system. The development of the Nazi parent relates back to World War I when they were in their childhood, and their children in turn developed during their adolescent period under the Hitler regime. With a background of such experiences, present day Hitler youth are quite different and present a difficult problem for clinical diagnosis and reeducation.

That nonadaptive political attitudes may lead to serious mental difficulties has been proposed by Appel (3). He drew a parallel between isolationism and schizophrenic withdrawal from reality. Some interesting hypotheses as to the effect of mental deficiencies in rulers upon political systems were given by Norman (39).

Effect of Socio-Economic and Class Status

The effect of social stratification was studied by Cattell (11), Tumin (43), Carroll (10), Saenger (41), Humphrey (21) and Jones (23). Cattell has suggested that stratification and mobility may be a source of stress or a form of adaptation depending upon how it is used and the individual's attitude toward it.

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Tumin (43) gave an account of an Indian in an Eastern Guatemalan pueblo who rejected the social convention of marrying within his group and married a daughter of the landowner and privileged class. Altho he was apparently an intelligent individual, he was accepted by neither group. He represented what the lower group desired and what the upper group feared—an attempt to secure equality between the two.

Carroll (10) in a study of concepts concerning lying, stealing, and cheating of 300 Negro boys and girls in an eastern section of Baltimore, found that the middle-class children disapproved of cheating, lying, and stealing mainly for altruistic or social reasons while the lower-class children tended to express their disapproval from a materialistic or nonsocial point of view. The middle-class children selected more successful adults as their ideal, whereas the lower-class children chose more glamorous adults. The movies seemed to play a very large role in forming concepts of "the ideal self."

An analysis of the relation of sociological status, as determined by income and religion, to political behavior was reported by Saenger (41). In a study of the voting trend in New York City over a period of several years, he found that differences in religion appeared to be more important than educational differences in determining the extent of political awareness. Furthermore, the decision to change parties was not closely related to an awareness of the differences between two parties. Group membership seemed more important than party platform. When the voter's opinion conflicted with the established party line, the party program was often interpreted in terms of the individual's own desires and beliefs.

Humphrey (21) compared the caste concept and race concept as to their relative usefulness in understanding Negro-White relations and concluded that the caste concept is the more useful since it expresses the socio-cultural data more accurately than does race.

In the Negro population of South Boston, Virginia, Jones (23) found a well-defined upper and lower class but no social group that could be called a middle-class. In its place was an amorphous group of individuals who were, for the most part, the more energetic and ambitious elements of the community. Competition for status was based more upon personal worth than one's family.

An extensive discussion of the effect of class differences on problems of education was given by Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb (44).

Mental Health in Different Cultures

A number of interesting studies comparing different cultures have appeared during the period under consideration. These included two investigations of Japanese culture. LaBarre (30) studied the Japanese internees at the Central Utah War Relocation Project. He described the Japanese personality as highly compulsive; and characterized by secretiveness, hiding of emotions, persistence, and a tendency to project its attitudes.

Kuhlen (28) obtained Pressey interest-attitude scores from 1589 Japa-

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nese and 690 Chinese high-school students at the McKinley High School in Hawaii and compared the results with similar data from 1547 white children of comparable age and grade level in the United States. Analysis of the scores, based on American norms, revealed the Orientals to be relatively immature on the tests dealing with disapprovals and worries, but about equivalent to the whites on the interest scores. The Orientals tended to check worries about twice as frequently as the whites. The author suggested that this may be an indication of the emotional stress accompanying the acculturation process.

Whiting (45) in his study of the reaction of the Kwoma to frustration found that in the play group, which the child entered at the age of five or six, aggression led to retaliation by a person bigger and stronger, and submission became the most adaptive and usual response. Aggression toward younger siblings, unless it resulted in bodily injury, was approved by the child's parents.

Hsu (19) suggested that the incentive to work in primitive communities is essentially the same as that in modern communities; namely, self-interest. He felt there has been a tendency to exaggerate the differences between incentives, especially economic incentives, in primitive and modern communities. Beard (4) presented an interesting summary of child guidance in Mexico. The study of individual delinquents is being developed and methods for their rehabilitation are being improved.

Humphrey (20) investigated the extent to which the stereotype of Mexican-American youth; namely, "law-breaking zoot-suiter," corresponded to the actual behavior of Mexican youths in Detroit. The actual behavior varied greatly and it was evident from the different groups studied that stereotypes do not describe the situation very adequately.

Two studies, Pullias (40) and Kramer (27), pointed out some mental effects of western civilization.

Sectional Differences

Several interesting studies on sectional differences have appeared. Mooney (35) described some of the differences found among five Louisiana communities in the personal problems of secondary-school students. He used a checklist of 330 problems common to high-school students. Goodwin (15) studied the eastern shore of Maryland as an example of good personal adjustment in small stable communities. He suggested that the slow rate of change, traditionally clear definitions of relationships within the community, and the accessibility of the prerequisites for personal recognition are the factors which produce the favorable adjustment.

Mull, Keddy, and Koonce (37) administered the Bernreuter Personality Inventory to forty definitely northern and forty definitely southern college girls. No reliable differences in average scores for the two groups were obtained altho some evidence of less neuroticism, less self-sufficiency, and more sociability was found among the southern group. In another study,

Woodruff and Mull (49) used the Bell Adjustment Inventory for thirty-one southern freshman students and thirty-one northern freshman students at Sweet Briar College. Few differences were found.

James and Moore (22) obtained weekend diaries from 535 adolescents and analyzed the leisure-time activities. Saturday and Sunday activities were much more given to pleasure and were much more sexual in nature than weekday activities. They suggested that the conditions under which these adolescents lived tended to discourage the development of purposiveness and responsibility.

Drake and Cayton (14) presented an extended documental social history of the Chicago south-side Negro district and described the variety of problems presented by the Negro-White relations in this crowded urban section.

In a study of the factors responsible for the relatively lower personality ratings of rural children in comparison with urban children, Stott (42) found that in the nonfarm group occupational status was related to adjust- ment. Children of the common laborer class scored lowest. A factor impor- tant for all groups was quality of family life. Farm children attending vil- lage schools scored high in self-adjustment.

Effect of War

During this period a relatively large number of studies on the effect of war both in this country and abroad on various aspects of mental health appeared. A review of the literature with special reference to the present war was provided by Despert (13). Studies of the effect of war on mental health in England were made by Mackintosh (34) and Jones (24). Jones reported an increase in juvenile delinquency during the war of 57 percent in the community which he studied. Other studies of delinquency rates in wartime were reported by Burt (9), Chute (12), and Killian (25).

Community Planning for Rehabilitation and Readjustment

As the war drew to its close, interest in the development of community programs for rehabilitation and readjustment to civilian life of both citi- zens and veterans increased. This increase in interest was reflected in the appearance of a large number of articles, pamphlets, and books on counsel- ing the veteran. An extensive bibliography of these references is provided by Klopf (26).

An extensive analysis of the causes of current crises and suggestions for intelligent planning for the future, based on knowledge from a variety of disciplines, was given by twenty-two contributors in a book edited by Linton (33).

Delinquency and Community Factors

Some interesting light on the relation of delinquency to economic trends was provided in studies by Wood (48), Bogen (6) and Wiers (46). Wood

studied the crime rates of seven Wisconsin cities and villages ranging be-
tween 1000 and 2000 population. Of twenty-four indexes which were
correlated with crime rate, four were significant and three of these were
indexes of economic prosperity. He concluded that incidence of crime in
these communities is more closely related to the prosperity of these com-
munities than to the kind of enterprise involved or to various demographic
classifications. Bogen (6) reported from his study of juvenile delinquency
in Los Angeles a strong tendency for delinquency to decrease during de-
pression and to rise during prosperity. He proposed as an explanation of
this finding the relaxation of parental guidance and tendency toward family
disorganization during times of prosperity. Wiers (46) also noted a relation
between delinquency and level of economic activity.

During the period under review, there was considerable interest in com-
munity programs for the treatment and prevention of delinquency (2, 5,
7, 16, 17, 18, 36, 38).

Further data on incidence of delinquency in various age groups was pro-
vided by Burrows (8) who also described a comprehensive program involv-
ing the entire community, and by Kvaraceus (29).

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CHAPTER V

Mental Hygiene, Health, and Safety in Industry

LYDIA G. GIBERSON

Possibly as a by-product of the war, the period 1943-46 produced much literature in psychology and related fields. But probably no period has been less critical of the material published. Much of that which has been printed consists of rewrites of previous literature.

Particularly has this been true in the field of industrial mental hygiene where there is a paucity of basic material. In this field, substantial research is needed far more than the printed word. Currently the need is for contributors who have gone thru the hard treadmill of training and who subsequently have applied that training against a background of working conditions.

Mental Hygiene Services in Industry

When national effort is required as in a war, national health, both physical and mental, immediately becomes of paramount importance. Unfortunately when the war is won, the promotion of national health generally declines. Too often in our history the nation has taken the attitude "billions for defense, pennies for health." As a result, the important strides in medical research and medical development have occurred during war periods. The recent war was no exception.

As the manpower of the nation was siphoned off for military duty, medical programs in industry developed. Most of the programs had as their prime objective prevention of physical or mental disease. This new concept of industrial psychiatry as a form of preventive industrial medicine was pointed out by Giberson (22). Many mental hygiene programs were developed during the war period. Those in larger companies, such as Dupont and General Motors, were described by Dershimer (12), Irvin (30), and Eadie (13) and the program at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, by Leggo, Law, and Clarke (35). Sometimes the psychiatrist was a member of the medical staff of the company and accepted as a fellow employee. At Sperry Gyroscope the psychiatrist was a consultant, outside the plant, and consequently the viewpoint was somewhat different (7).

During the war years many universities developed refresher courses in industrial medicine. Most universities tried to give some reference to the mental hygiene aspect and some papers were developed, as shown by Kindred (32), Potter (47), Howe (28), Coonley (11), and Kennedy (31). Many of the programs in mental hygiene are being continued as an integral part of the general medical program, rather than a specialty functioning separately.

Placement and Adjustments of Handicapped Persons

A step in the right direction during the war years was the change in attitude toward hiring physically and emotionally handicapped people, and the utilization of older people as shown by Stieglitz (55). On actual perfomance it was found that the so-called handicapped employees lost less time, had fewer accidents, showed more interest in their work, and had higher production records than the average employee. Slowly management and industrial medical groups have recognized that *proper placement* of individuals really determines whether an employee is handicapped or not.

Harvey and Luongo (25) studied the field of physical capacity for work. Wittmer (65) discussed the problem of a more wholesome attitude in the employment of emotionally and physically handicapped persons. An exceptionally thoro survey has been made by the Industrial Hygiene Foundation (29) covering the employment of the disabled veteran. Hostetler's (27) article on vocational training and placement of the veteran is well worth reading. Finally, and most important, management itself is beginning to realize its responsibility in this whole field as shown by Barrett (3).

Research in the Armed Forces Applicable to Industry

The wealth of work done by the aimed services has not been lost but its correlation with industry's problem continues to be a necessary and intriguing task, undoubtedly due to the difference in the underlying psychology of a nation at war and a nation at peace. The literature covered every phase of normal and abnormal reaction thru the period from civilian to veteran and back to civilian. Good examples are studies by Strecker and Appel (56), Grinker and Spiegel (24), Menninger (39), Rusk (49), Freedman (17), and Solomon and Yakoviev (54).

Mira (41) gave a preview of the pattern set, as seen in the Spanish War. Many pamphlets were written about the veteran for the employer, the family, the community. Few were written to guide the soldier himself. One of the best was an Air Forces manual (59). Doubtless, as time permits, more and more industries will adopt technics and procedures that were worked out in the services on a large scale. One of the best articles published on the whole psychiatric toll of warfare appeared in *Fortune Magazine* (16).

Women in Industry

Journals have had many articles based on the problems of women in industry. Numerous phases have been covered, many of them dealing with the differences between men and women workers, in time lost, abilities, and needs. Anderson (2) discussed the protection for industrial women, with emphasis on progress and prospects, while Kronenberg (34) discussed working conditions. Wishard (63) and Burnell (8) presented workable

health programs for women. Heyel (26) summed up the consensus in the field from the mental hygiene viewpoint.

Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction cannot be considered entirely as a personnel function in the narrow sense. Personal relationships in industry probably have more impact on health, certainly on mental health, than most people realize. Union activities (58), supervision (38), and interpersonal relations (33) are interrelated with job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and health. The Symposium on Industrial Health (10), Smith (53), and Woodward and Rennie (66) deserve attention.

Absenteeism

In Great Britain an excellent piece of research work was done by the Industrial Health Research Board on the problem of sickness among women in industry (23). A comparable job has been done by Gafafer (19). In his Public Health reports (20) on disabling sickness he studied both time lost and frequency of short-term absences. Fatigue is closely allied with absenteeism, regardless of whether the fatigue is physiological or psychological, according to Fetterman (14), Flinn (15), and Simonson (52). Wittmer (64), Woody (67), and Tallman (57) discussed the general medical aspect of absenteeism in industry and its probable control.

Health and Safety Programs

The doctor, nurse, and safety engineer have always been the trio considered necessary to furnish industry with an efficient health and safety program. But without the proper participation of labor and management, no program can be a success. A good cross section of this literature has been given by Bloomfield (4), Cameron (9), New York Academy of Medicine (43), Price (48), Sappington (50), Selby and Lutz (51), Owen (44), Newquist (42), and Perkins (46).

Summary

Most of the articles reviewed for this chapter were recitals of experience, with some directional trends of the present pointing to a better understanding on the part of the general public, the medical profession as a whole, and above all by business leaders, that good mental health is essential to production, to safety, and to life itself. Unfortunately, much of the literature in the past three years has been aimless or directed toward one small area of thinking in one particular phase. The next three years will probably see the launching of many research projects in this field with actual data gathered.

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CHAPTER VI

Experimental Contributions to Mental Hygiene

LAURANCE F. SHAFFER

From the earliest days of educational psychology, experiments performed under controlled conditions in the laboratory have contributed to the understanding of behavior. Experiments with lower animals have been the source of many principles that are directly applicable to the education of human beings.

During the past twenty years, an increasing number of experimental studies have been made of abnormal behavior in animals that throw light on human problems of conflict, frustration, aggression, maladjustment, and mental hygiene. An advantage of all infrahuman experiments is that a greater degree of control can be exercised over the total life of the animal than would be wise to exert upon a human being. This control clarifies the pertinent variables of many experiments. Studies of artificially induced abnormal behavior especially demand the use of lower animals since harmful effects may result. The applicability of concepts originating from animal experiments can be confirmed by comparing them to the findings obtained in the clinical study of persons who show deviations of behavior.

This is the first summary of experimental studies of abnormal behavior in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, altho Sears (21) referred to a few such researches in his article on personality and motivation, along with other material drawn from theoretical, clinical, and anthropological sources. During the three-year period covered by this review fewer studies have been reported than in a like time immediately preceding, probably because many workers in this area have been occupied with war services. The small number of new references is offset by the publication of a number of summaries (5, 6, 10, 17, 20, 22, 23), and especially by the full reports of two programs of long-term research, those of Gantt (7) and Masserman (13, 15).

Behavior Disorders Induced by the Conditioned Response Method

The first so-called "experimental neuroses" were reported by Pavlov (18). Dogs, placed in the restraining harness used in conditioned reaction experiments, were trained to respond by salivation to one stimulus and to inhibit response to another stimulus. When the difference between these stimuli became too small to be discriminated, certain dogs "broke down" and showed generally disturbed behavior. Only a minority of animals became abnormal, however, and their reactions were not all alike. Previously timid and inhibited dogs tended to become agitated, to show excessive activity, to bite the apparatus, and to act aggressively toward the experi-

menter. Originally active dogs tended toward generalized inhibition, maintaining set postures or going to sleep in the apparatus. Russian laboratories secured similar results in a few experiments with children, which were summarized by Razran (19).

Experimental neuroses in sheep, goats, and pigs were described by Liddell (10). The method was generally similar to that of Pavlov, except that the response conditioned was that of leg withdrawal to a weak electric shock. The stimuli to be discriminated were usually auditory, including tones and different rates of a metronome. Liddell placed certain interpretations on his experiments that are particularly applicable to human affairs. The dependent and trustful relationship of a domestic animal to the experimenter was held to be a significant factor in precipitating breakdown when faced with an impossible task. The restraint imposed by the apparatus also was a traumatic experience in that it prevented the animal from making substitutive or diverting responses that might have prevented the neurosis. Sheep conditioned in a small pen without bodily restraint could not be "broken down." Other evidence has confirmed the part played by restraint. Bijou (2) induced experimental neurosis in rats only by the use of a close-fitting cage, and found that the excited behavior was more pronounced when the rats' legs were restricted as well. Marcuse and Moore (12), however, obtained tantrum behavior in a pig when an accustomed restraint was removed, and suggested that a change in the degree of freedom was the determining factor.

Liddell found that sheep made neurotic by the experiments showed abnormal behavior outside of the laboratory. One sheep continued "neurotic" until its death at the age of thirteen years. Vacations from the laboratory, petting by the experimenter, and the use of sedatives had some effect, but no methods of treatment were very satisfactory.

James (9) induced abnormal behavior in another way by placing a weight on a dog's leg which made it more difficult for him to perform a conditioned avoidance response set up by an electric shock to the foot. Two animals were used. The initially more excitable dog showed a gradual development of hyperactive behavior. The more stable dog showed more evidence of physiological stress (heart rate) and finally "broke down" suddenly.

A twelve-year program of research on neurotic behavior in the Pavlovian Laboratory of the Phipps Psychiatric Clinic was reported by Gantt (7). Observations were made on a considerable number of dogs, but emphasis was given to the case histories of three animals whose degree of stability varied, especially to the unstable dog Nick who was neurotic for ten of the twelve years of observation. Observations of the induction of behavior disturbances by excessively fine discrimination, and of the resulting abnormal reactions, confirmed the Pavlovian experiments. After a behavior disorder had been set up to one stimulus, a tone, a few associations of the tone with a light stimulus sufficed to make the light produce the same state. This is related to the readiness with which human neurotics can transfer

their anxiety to situations even slightly associated with the basic conflict. Elaborate measurements were made of autonomic functions of the dogs while being subjected to the experimental stress, including recording of glandular, heart, breathing, and sexual reactions. It was found that incipient disturbance could be detected in these functions before it was evidenced in overt behavior. This may lead to methods of value in predicting breakdowns.

Gantt made detailed studies of the generalization of neurotic behavior in the life of the dogs outside of the laboratory, and of its effect on social relationships with other dogs and with humans. In susceptibility to breakdown, dogs could be classified along a continuum from very stable to very labile, but the differences between excitatory and inhibitory types found by Pavlov were not confirmed. No final conclusions were drawn as to whether susceptibility was constitutional, or was due to the dogs' early experiences, but the labile animals tended to be more fawningly dependent on humans and more submissive to other dogs. This observation seems to confirm clinical studies of maladjusted children.

Studies of Conflict in Cats

Masserman (13, 15) studied cats' responses to conflict by a technic that permitted a greater variety of observations and more direct application to human affairs than did the conditioned reaction method. Cats were trained to raise the lid of a food box and to eat, upon the presentation of a light and sound signal. Conflict was then produced by subjecting the cats to a strong air blast or to an electric shock, or both, at the moment of feeding. The feeding response was abolished, and the cats showed additional general symptoms of: (a) anxiety in and out of the experimental situation, evidenced by trembling, crouching, mewing, and disturbances of heart rate and respiration; (b) avoidance or "phobic" reactions to food, to the apparatus, and to symbols associated with the experiment; and (c) defensive or substitutive behavior including excessive preening, seeking of attention from the experimenter, and aggressive acts toward other animals. Control observations showed that cats readily adapted to the light and sound stimuli alone, and to the air blast when it was not given during feeding. The latter observation was in contrast to the findings with rats, discussed below.

Masserman made a valuable distinction between frustration and conflict. When trained cats were merely frustrated by locking the food box or by placing them behind a glass partition, they adapted readily to the external frustration and in a short time came to pay no attention to the light and sound signals. None developed neurosis under these conditions. The essential requirement for the induction of abnormal behavior was held to be the conflict of strongly motivated antagonistic responses of seeking and avoiding.

Altho there were individual differences in susceptibility, cats as a species were found to be labile, so that all animals were disturbed by the very effective method used. The neurosis was aggravated by an increase of

one of the conflictual drives, as by increasing the hunger or the intensity of the electric shock. It was also accentuated by pushing the neurotic animal toward the food box, the locus of his conflict, by a movable barrier.

Masserman reported more specifically planned studies of the treatment of the artificially induced neurosis than have other experimenters. Rest and absence from the conflictual situation were of little or no therapeutic value. The reduction of one of the conflicting drives (hunger) had a temporary effect, but the neurotic behavior returned when the motive was again strong. A few cats were "cured" by the social example of a normal cat placed simultaneously in the box, but this was not a dependable method of treatment. A procedure of moderate value was treatment by "transference," defined as stroking, petting, reassurance and hand-feeding performed by the experimenter. This helped some animals, but was inapplicable to cats who had come to fear the experimenter in the course of their training.

Two generally effective methods of treatment were found. One was the forced solution of the conflict by environmental manipulation. The hunger drive was increased by food deprivation and by unusually tempting morsels in the food box, and the movable barrier was used to keep the animal near the feeding position. At first anxiety was greatly increased, but at length most animals broke thru their inhibition and fed. After numerous repetitions of this sequence, the neurotic behavior was replaced by almost-normal feeding, usually with some residual hesitation and timidity. Even more effective was the technic of treatment involving giving control of the experimental situation to the animal subject. Cats for whom this method was used had been taught to press a switch, giving the feeding signals, and thereby to feed themselves. Animals trained in this self-initiated act were less easily made neurotic by conflict than were other cats. When, after the formation of neurosis, they were induced by hunger and proximity to depress the switch again, they "worked thru" the conflict and usually showed marked and permanent improvement. Masserman noted that these two most effective means of treatment involved the greatest amount of spontaneous readaptation on the part of the animal. There are obvious implications favoring the client-centered attitude and the use of nondirective counseling technics that have recently come into prominence in the treatment of human personality disorders.

Other experiments reported by Masserman and his colleagues (14, 16) were concerned with the relationships between neurosis and the social phenomena of dominance and aggression. Sixteen cats were trained to respond to the food signals in the box used for the experiments already cited. They were then combined in groups of four, and hierarchies of dominance were determined for each group. In each group, the most dominant cat, A, would push aside B, C, or D to gain the food. Cat B would be submissive to A, but dominant over C or D, and so on to D who was submissive to all three of the others. Except for some pushing and crowding at the food box, no fighting or other aggression occurred. The less dominant cat waited quietly until the more dominant one was satiated. Further observations in-

volved the pairing of cats each of whom had previously been dominant, and the induction of experimental neurosis in some of the cats. It was found that "aggressive behavior did not appear in a dominant animal until it had been displaced downward in rank, either by competition with a more dominant cat, or by the development of neurotic inhibition induced by a motivational conflict." (16, p. 15). The aggressiveness diminished or disappeared when the relative dominance was restored, as by the cure of the neurosis. These findings have applications to the understanding of aggressive behavior both in individuals and in social groups.

Studies of Seizure States

The experiments of Maier (11) first called widespread attention to a behavior disorder of a very severe type that can be induced in rats. The abnormal response, quite different from the patterns of anxiety and agitation already cited, started with wild leaps and dashes about the room, followed by a convulsive state with spasms of contraction and relaxation of muscles, and ended in a passive phase during which the rat was inert, could be handled without resistance, and could be "molded" into any posture. In his original experiments, Maier confronted the rats with unsolvable discriminations. When they refused to react, he "motivated" them with a strong air blast to compel a response. Subsequent research soon showed that the abnormal behavior pattern could be evoked *by the air blast alone,* without a discrimination conflict. Intense and high pitched sounds elicited the seizure in susceptible rats. The phenomenon has come to be termed "audiogenic seizure," and is believed to be distinct from experimental neurosis.

Altho the seizure states of rats have little direct applicability to human adjustment problems, they are of considerable interest in themselves. The literature to 1944 has been summarized by Finger (5). Age, dietary deficiencies, and some drugs are related to susceptibility to seizure. Restraint of the rat alleviates seizures, an effect opposite to that of the true experimental neurosis. Studies of the effect of heredity have not yet been conclusive.

Arnold (1) found that strychnine injections made previously unresponding rats susceptible, and increased the frequency of seizures in previously susceptible ones. From these data, it was argued that there is a continuum of susceptibility from the least to the most susceptible animals, without any distinct classes or types. By observing behavior in nonattack trials, Arnold also reported that normal animals tended to show manipulatory and exploratory behavior that formed a defensive reaction against the disturbing situation, while susceptible animals showed mainly involuntary activities of tremor, twitching, and lip-wetting that were not constructive defenses. Hamilton (8), in studying the effects of sodium bromide administered to mother rats upon the behavior of their offspring, found that the bromide groups were less timid in ordinarily frustrating situations such as having

to wade thru water, but were more susceptible to audiogenic seizures. These and other studies continue to show some relationship between the seizure states and other aspects of emotionality.

Some controversies about the seizure states have continued into the present triennium. Bitterman (3) argued that all personality disorders are conflictual, and that the seizures in rats are due to a conflict between their tendency to avoid the sound, and also to avoid the walls or barriers that prevent their escape from it. Finger (4) has replied by pointing out that the peculiar behavior of the seizure has been evoked only by the auditory stimulus, never by the numerous other difficulties and conflicts to which rats have been subjected. The bulk of the evidence seems to favor the interpretation that the seizures are not due to conflict, and that they are basically different in character from animal or human neuroses.

Interpretations and Applications

The studies of artificial behavior disorders in animals form an indispensable basis for understanding mental hygiene. They have shown that a conflict between approach and avoidance (13) or between excitation and inhibition (7, 18) may cause anxiety, hyperactivity, and substitutive behavior. Conflicts of this type are represented in many human situations, such as that of a child with a rejecting mother. An early conflict may have life-long neurotic sequels if not successfully treated (7). It involves many glandular, circulatory, and other reactions of the autonomic system (7, 10). Neurotic behavior is prevented by freedom and by overt activity (1, 10), but is made more likely by undue dependence and restraint (2, 10). The most effective treatment of neurotic conditions involves a maximum of self-directed readaptation on the part of the individual (13, 15). Neurosis has significance beyond the welfare of single persons, as it is related to the social phenomena of dominance and aggression (14, 16). An unsolved problem of great importance is that of variation in susceptibility to neurosis, toward which animal experiments may be expected to make future contributions.

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CHAPTER VII

Methods, Technics, and Instruments of Mental Hygiene Diagnosis and Therapy

RUTH STRANG

THE increasing scope and malignancy of psychoses in the world today demand more widespread and effective diagnoses and therapy. During the last three years progress has been made in meeting this need by providing more adequate training for psychiatrists, by enlisting more fully the services of psychologists, by establishing a closer relationship between psychiatry and other fields of medicine, and by developing methods of group therapy. Thus the kind of differentiated treatment appropriate for each individual can be determined more rapidly; the treatment process itself may be reduced in length; and the behavior, attitude, and motivation of groups influenced in the same amount of time that a therapist might spend on an individual case.

Since progress in this field is made not only by the experimental method, but also by the formulation of theories and explanations growing out of clinical observations and experience, articles of both types are included in the bibliography. This chapter overlaps to some extent with Chapter III in this issue and with chapters in other issues of the REVIEW: *Psychological Tests and Their Uses*, (Volume 14, No. 1) February 1944; and *Counseling, Guidance, and Personnel Work*, (Volume 15, No. 2) April 1945.

Clinical Application of Psychological Tests

One of the most significant developments in this three-year period is the statistical study and evaluation of the clinical use of tests previously administered chiefly for their total score. The most outstanding contribution to this development of psychological testing to facilitate psychiatric service has been made by Rapaport and his associates (46). Rapaport first selected a battery of tests chosen to evoke different aspects and levels of functioning: tests yielding ideational content, tests of intelligence and learning efficiency, tests of concept formation, and tests that reveal personality structure. The following eight tests were "welded into a single diagnostic tool": Wechsler-Bellevue Adult and Adolescent Intelligence Scale, Babcock Deterioration Test (most useful features), Goldstein-Weigl-Sheerer Sorting Test, Hanfmann-Kasanin Test, Word Association Test, Rorschach, Szondi Test, and the Thematic Apperception Test. Each of these tests was studied in detail, and statistical analyses made of the test data on 217 clinical and 54 control cases. Thus a summary of the diagnostic significance of success and failure on single items and indications of personality structure and of different kinds of mental disorder was obtained from individual tests and from the battery as a whole.

Instead of abandoning psychological tests because they are inadequate, other psychologists also have been developing the diagnostic potentialities of tests along these lines:

1. Better observation of the subject's cooperation and behavior while taking the test.

2. Clearer recognition of the objectives and limitations of each test.

3. Study of the qualitative interrelations among items and subtests.

4. More expert interpretation and synthesis of the results of various tests with information gained from interviews, observation, and questionnaires.

5. More stress on the "living clinical dynamics" revealed by the subject's responses in test situations.

"An Elementary Syllabus of Psychological Tests" (51) illustrates some of the above emphases.

The following are a few of the newer departures from the orthodox use of tests and rating scales:

To measure psychological understanding of human relations; subject is asked to respond to a test as he believes another person or a homogeneous group would respond (59).

To ascertain the influence on the results of a given test of factors such as social suggestion and conformity (6), parents' attitude (33), subject's response-bias (26), group psychotherapy (47), and attitudes hypnotically induced (32).

To compare test results of neurotic and "normal" subjects and to study the results further by means of factor analysis (8).

To use tests to understand personality problems of severely retarded children (52).

To construct specialized tests and inventories on the basis of clinical autobiographies, as, for example, an inventory for measuring psychological security and insecurity (39).

To use drawings as a basis for personality sketches (60) and the autobiography as an aid to psychotherapy (30).

Development of Screening Devices

During the war short tests, biographical questionnaires, and interviews were used effectively by slightly trained workers. Rodger (48) described the procedures used by recruiting assistants in the British Admiralty. Follow-up during training showed the value of the new method. Satisfactory reports on a man's operational proficiency, however, are difficult to obtain. Reports have been made of the following specific screening devices: the Maller Controlled Association Test (37), a neuropsychiatric questionnaire (23), the Shipley and Landis Personal Inventory, the Cornell Selectee Index (27), the group Rorschach (1, 27, 28), and the short personnel selection interview (42).

The inventory or questionnaire, which is essentially a group method of conducting a preliminary psychiatric interview, seems to have been more valuable for screening purposes in the armed forces than it has been with civilian populations. Proof of the value of these screening devices is not easily obtained. Mere comparisons of responses of men who have already broken down with those of normals are quite inadequate.

The Search for Syndromes

When personality is defined as a "dynamic organization of interacting forces which constitute its elements," technics for the measurement of personality must be concerned with syndromes, patterns, clusters, and longitudinal data. Defining syndrone as "a group of measurable aspects of personality which vary together," Horn (25) described a method of studying the dynamic relations among a large number of observations and measurements on twenty-eight individual cases by combining intercorrelations of .50 or higher into clusters. This method is of value: (a) In expressing differences between groups in the patterning of their personalities, and (b) in making more meaningful a single aspect of personality in a context of related aspects.

An application of this type of statistical analysis to 5000 consecutive children examined at the Institute of Juvenile Research (28) revealed five syndromes of deviant behavior: (a) the overinhibited child, (b) the unsocialized aggressive child, (c) the socialized delinquent child who is well adjusted within a delinquent group, (d) the encephalitic or brain-damaged child, and (e) the schizoid child.

A graphic method of studying personality patterns in individuals was described in detail by Andrews and Muhlhan (4).

Technics for measuring the purposive aspect of personality require longitudinal study and measurement of variation in the individual from one set of conditions to another. Gregory (20) attempted to analyze patients' personalities from the standpoint of their purpose—what they seem to be trying to do. While Allport's concept of teleonomic trends is useful in understanding behavior, the elaborate classification of overlapping re-membered items does not seem to be particularly helpful.

Cattell (12) described three types of trait unities established statistically by covariation of more specific traits: (a) common and unique traits, (b) surface traits (correlation clusters), (c) source traits (factors). It is his opinion that "the task of psychological comprehension and prediction demands the discovery of trait unities of a high degree of efficacy."

Projective Technics

Perhaps the most important contribution of the projective technics lies in the widespread application of the "projective hypothesis"—that every response a person makes is a reflection, a projection, of his private world of feeling and meaning. New developments in specific projective technics need not be treated here because the research in this field has been covered in other reviews. For example, Sargent (53) recently surveyed the rationale of projective methods and their various applications. The critical attitude toward projective methods expressed by Cattell (13) is a wholesome anti-

dote to too sanguine acceptance of these technics and a deterrent to irresponsible interpretation and use of projective test results.

Shock Therapy

Altho shock therapy lies more in the province of medicine than in the field of education, it is a development with which all therapists should be familiar. The conflicting results of research in this field may be attributed to a number of factors: the difficulty of accessing improvement objectively, the lack of control groups and follow-up studies over a period of years, the preponderance of unsubstantiated opinion presented as evidence, and the inexact definition of the kind and degree of disorders in which shock therapy has been used. Without the use of a control group there is no way of knowing whether the less severe cases treated might have been cured by psychotherapy alone within one or two months. Schnack, Shakow, and Lively (54) concluded from their control group experiment that approximately two-thirds of the improvement may be attributed to ordinary hospital routine and familiarity with the test situation. There is need for: (a) caution in the use of shock therapy because of its possible psychological and physical dangers to the patient (9, 34, 41), (b) better selection of cases for which a certain kind of therapy is most appropriate, and (c) continual search for the psychodynamics of the illness so that the cooperative and alert patient can be better assisted in his groping for insight leading to eventual recovery (15, 19, 50). A brief historical background and an understanding of the various agencies used in shock therapy is available in the summary by Stainbrook (58).

Group Therapy

Two reasons for the rapid rise of group therapy in the last two years are: (a) the need for serving a much larger number of persons than can be treated individually, and (b) the recognition that some persons are more responsive to group treatment than to individual psychotherapy. Group therapy gives the individual acceptance, support, release, ego-strengthening, reassurance, and derivative or direct insight (3, 56). There are a number of forms of group therapy, ranging from play technics and psychodrama to group discussion of personal mental hygiene problems (17, 31, 43, 45, 57). It is important to select the right kind of group for the right patient (18). A small beginning on the evaluation of the long-term effects of group therapy has been made (21).

Occupational Therapy and Rehabilitation

This is an important and timely topic which has been recently summarized by Elliott (16). Work appropriate to the individual is an important therapeutic agent (10).

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Counseling and Psychotherapy

The interview and "nondirective" counseling have been reviewed in a recent issue of the REVIEW (49). Counseling and psychotherapy in which the individual takes responsibility and uses the resources within himself to gain a new orientation to himself and others and uses the counselor as a "catalytic agent" to activate his thought process, is not a new technic but a new and needed emphasis. Altho progress has been made in describing the counseling process, nothing highly significant has yet been reported on the scientific development and application of criteria for measuring progress in counseling and psychotherapy.

Present trends in psychoanalytic theory and practice were presented by Menninger and others in the January 1944 issue of the *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic* (40). One trend is the emphasis on psychiatry for "normal" persons—the making available to large numbers of persons the implications of psychoanalytic theory. The question might be raised: How is this being done, and is it particularly desirable?

Case Studies

During this three-year period an increasing number of detailed case studies illustrating many methods of diagnosis and therapy (2, 22, 29, 44) have been published.

Evaluation of Mental Hygiene Technics

Many opinions as to the effectiveness of various kinds of diagnosis and therapy have been expressed and several criteria for measuring progress have been proposed. One criterion is nonreturn to the hospital or clinic. Wilder (61) gathered together statistics of this kind. Clinics seemed to show the poorest results, but the differences between hospitals, clinics, psychoanalytic institutes, and private practice were not impressive. Most of the evaluation has consisted of impressions of the worker; a typical example is the case reported by Combs (14). Some of the therapists' personal observations of their cases have extended for more than twenty-five years. Andriola (5) used case study data to appraise success and failure in the treatment of twenty-five truants, and Burt (11) tested three procedures with 183 school children: (a) informal but systematic interviews, (b) paper and pencil tests of the "indirect" type, and (c) observations of behavior in standardized real-life situations. Burt found that "judgments combining all three procedures are far superior to those based on any one alone" and that the "observations under real-life conditions had the greatest validity." The interviews proved more valid than the tests. Maberly (35) likewise concluded that at present a dynamic clinical history is a far more reliable indication of adjustment than attempts to measure separately instability, sensitivity, and emotional maturation. Admittedly there are vast

differences among interviewers in their ability to investigate the client's real-life behaviors, and a good deal of work still needs to be done in checking their diagnoses and decisions.

The measurement of progress in counseling and psychotherapy comes up against many obstacles. Before the relative values of different treatments can be validly determined, the following conditions must be met:

1. Standard means of describing research populations must be developed, including some measure of the individual's initial capacity for improvement.

2. Individual differences in response to various diagnostic and therapeutic methods must be recognized and the diagnostic significance of his responses ascertained.

3. Standard means of measuring the degree of clinical improvement are essential.

4. The effect of different environments on the individual's adjustment should be included in the evaluation of different technics and methods.

5. Long-term, as well as immediate, comprehensive follow-up of treatment should be made.

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CHAPTER VIII

School Health Education

MABEL E. RUGEN

WORLD events of the past three years have accentuated the efforts of educators to reach better agreements regarding the place of health education in the total school program. Agreement has been expressed principally in recommendations, suggested standards, and policies aimed to give direction to the action which all groups concede must be taken. Research continues to be largely descriptive in nature altho some experimental studies are reported.

School Health Policies

The revised report, Suggested School Health Policies (38), is perhaps the most significant single document to appear. This report, endorsed by many education and health groups, represents a consensus of well-informed professional opinion. It suggested standards for the improvement of the total school health education program. The continued emphasis on physical fitness is reflected also in the 1945 yearbook of the American Association for School Administrators (1). Reports by the Educational Policies Commission presented recommendations for a minimal program of health education for every child (40). A committee of the North Central Association considered the importance of physical fitness and proposed that health education as a "fundamental" be the concern of the total school faculty and that sound programs already suggested be put into effect (3). The Chief State School Officers (53) recognized health education as a primary responsibility of state departments of public instruction and public health services as the function of the state departments of health.

Agreement of basic policies is indicated further in the cooperative efforts of nine national professional and lay agencies interested in child health (26), and in the activities of the Commission on Children in Wartime of the United States Children's Bureau (60). Action programs are proposed by this group also (61). Health education seems to be emerging as a priority for the peacetime curriculum.

Health Needs and Problems as a Basis for Health Teaching

There is strong support for the principle of building health education programs around the needs, interests, and problems of the learners. Likewise there is reasonably good agreement among health workers regarding the nature of these needs. A comprehensive statement of health needs of school age children with recommendations for its implementation has been compiled by a committee representing five national agencies (54).

The health needs of rural youth were given attention in the White House Conference on Rural Education and are reflected in the "Charter for the Education of Rural Children" (39). Frank (15) presented the physiological and emotional problems of adolescents and reminded us of their concerns about understanding themselves. Using several health inventories Neher (43) found that among 2415 high-school students the girls scored higher than the boys on health knowledge and attitudes; students of average or higher intelligence and from similar socio-economic levels scored higher on all factors; and only a slight positive correlation was found between health knowledge and attitudes and between health status and practices of students. Southworth, Latimer, and Turner (56) found little improvement in the scores of tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade students with similar inventories. The health questions most frequently asked by these students were those relating to medical advice.

Applying recommended standards Jackson (22) found the health practices associated with interscholastic athletics to be poor. Wheatley emphasized the lack of responsibility assumed by high-school students for their own health (65), even in the face of the wide publicity given selective service data and the high incidence of remediable defects and preventable conditions among the teen age groups (41). Other needs were presented in studies dealing with the adequacy of the diet of all age and economic groups (29) and in the physical fitness programs for high-school and college youth proposed by the U. S. Office of Education (62, 63). In addition, Metheny (35) has reported the most frequent health problem among college women according to their self-analysis to be chronic fatigue. Children's questions as a basis for curriculum planning and needs were studied by Baker, who included health items (4).

Curriculum Planning and Content

Significant emphases in curriculum planning are the broadening of objectives resulting from our war experience (58), and greater participation on the part of the total school faculty (14). The earlier emphasis on school-health-agencies-community planning has been accelerated. Steps involved in successful planning are defined in the reports of Webster (64), Brown (8), Bliss (6), and a three-year project in two Michigan counties (36). At the state level the use of joint committees and the development of special projects has been stimulated by demonstrated war needs. Hoyman (21) reported a joint committee plan for Oregon, and Jacocks (23) a school health coordinating service for North Carolina. Twenty-four state departments of public instruction, assisted by the Kellogg Foundation, have developed special projects in community health education aimed at more functional health instruction for a large number of students, especially in high school; greater use of community resources; better planning; and more extensive teacher participation. Michigan was the first of the states

to develop such a project (51). The plans for California (30) and Washington (13) also have been described in some detail.

Content emphases reflecting wartime needs have centered around food and nutrition, alcohol and temperance, sex education and human relationships, venereal and other diseases, dental health, physical defects, accident prevention, and mental hygiene. The Sloan Experiment in Kentucky (55) and the reports of the Committee on Food Habits (21) have broadened the concept of nutrition education to include community and family living. In the field of temperance education the contributions of the School of Alcohol Studies of Yale University are outstanding in defining the problems, providing scientific content for teaching and in evaluating textbook material already in the field (25, 50). The controversial field of sex education is being treated as an "area" in health and human relationships and considered by students as an "essential" study (12). At the college level Kirkpatrick (28), Carter (10), and Rockwood (49) all presented data indicating the attitude and problems of college students towards courtship, marriage, and parenthood. Pickup reported an intensive project on malaria education for teachers and pupils (46). All of these fields are represented in manuals prepared by the U. S. Office of Education for health instruction in high schools and colleges (62, 63). A supplementary program of dental fitness is reported by Salzmann and Kramer (52). Suggested outlines of content have been developed by various states conducting community health education projects (13, 31, 51).

Methods of Teaching and Materials

Finding impelling incentives to motivate individuals to observe good health behaviors continues to be a major task for research. Mead (34) and others have pointed out the complexity of the problem of changing food habits. Lewin (33) studied the forces behind food habits and determined why people eat what they eat. He also showed that group decision is a more effective method than request or lecture in changing food habits of housewives. Bennett and Swartz (5) and Desmond and Baumgartner (11) obtained changes in diet among high-school students and housewives by employing the promotional methods of business. Strang concluded (58) that high-school students were motivated in healthful living when the problem to be solved or values to be achieved were real to them. The use of individual and group counseling as an aid in helping high-school girls appraise their own health and determine why they may not be achieving their optimal was described by Leonard (32).

In the field of venereal disease education Larimore and Sternberg (31) presented the army's experience in determining the most effective motives in preventing these diseases and Getzhoff (16) reported the influence of posters and lectures on the practice of enlisted men, according to their questionnaire responses.

Unless students are taught the discipline of correct thinking, Potthoff (47) contended that health teaching is likely to be of little practical value. Gold (18) emphasized the importance of full participation of teachers in changing the health knowledge and behavior of junior high-school students.

Studies pertaining to the readability or effectiveness of specific instructional materials are limited. The Sloan Experiment in Kentucky should provide interesting data on this point at some future date (55). Compilations of selected source materials continue, and to Byrd goes the credit of initiating the *Health Instruction Yearbook* (9).

Preparation for Professional Personnel

The kind of preparation in health education likely to be of greatest value to the classroom teacher or health specialist continues to be studied with emphasis on in-service education. Suggestions are contained in the reports of the study on teacher education sponsored by the American Council on Education (48) and the recommendation of the American Public Health Association regarding the qualifications for the preparation of the health educator (2). The workshop also continues as an accepted method of in-service education. Owen (44) and Stokes (57) have reported separately on a five-week course in health and human relations for teachers, while Jellinek and others (25) presented a symposium on alcohol education based on the first summer session of the School of Alcohol Studies of Yale University. In Los Angeles a course in sex education for teachers was given (27).

Evaluation

Evaluation was the theme of the *Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* (42), the purpose of which was to provide teachers with accepted goals and suggestions on how to evaluate pupil learning in the area of understanding. One chapter was devoted to health education. Forty "authoritative" objectives were presented, as well as a list of twelve general appraisal procedures accompanied by a large number of specific illu,trations as to how they might be applied by the classroom teacher to specific objectives. Boyd (7) has developed an instrument for measuring attitudes towards desirable food practices centering around the production, storage, and consumption of food, as part of the Sloan Experiment in Kentucky. The Committee on Food Habits has appraised research in the field and developed a *Manual for the Study of Food Habits*, which suggests the utilization of various methods of investigation. This manual contains a bibliography of 682 references (20). Partial appraisal of the Michigan Community Health Service Project was obtained thru the use of ten different procedures (37). The health knowledge test has been studied by Patty for reading difficulty (45), while Gold (18) has contributed a new standardized test equated in two forms with norms for different achievement levels within each of the junior high-school grades.

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CHAPTER IX

School Health Services

GEORGE M. WHEATLEY

RESEARCH in school health service during the war years has been neither very extensive nor very significant. There have been, however, several studies and reports worthy of some elaboration because they concern fundamental areas. Furthermore, it may be that, because of current popular interest as an aftermath of World War II, these reports may be more successful in influencing thought and practice than those made in peacetime.

The School Medical Examination

The school medical examination has been the subject of considerable study. This in itself is not noteworthy because it has been the object of review ever since medical examinations became the basis of school health service. The significance of this attention to the medical examination is the emergence of the concept that the examination can and should be an educational experience. A variety of reports in both medical and educational literature lead to this generalization. Rugen and Nyswander (18) in the *Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* included the results of health service experiences as one of the most important measures of children's understanding of health. Wilzbach (31) reported the findings from the medical and dental examination of 5620 junior and senior high-school students and indicated that more than 80 percent required dental care, 6 percent had impaired vision, 2 percent had hearing loss, and over 5 percent had an abnormal heart condition. These children had not lacked medical supervision prior to this survey. Most of them were under the year-round supervision of private physicians. They had been examined in preschool roundups and in the first, third, fifth, and ninth grades, and had also been reexamined to qualify for athletic competition. But these physical examinations apparently had little impact on the students. When there is a purpose behind the examination, and when that purpose is understood by the recipient and the family, action results. Because the examination program described by Wilzbach was part of a Physical Fitness Victory Corps program, it had special significance in the eyes of the student, the faculty, the examining physicians and nurses, and the parents and the doctors in the community. Within six months after the start of the examination program, 80 percent of the students who needed care for their vision had received it. The record was comparable for other conditions. The conclusion is that periodic or annual examinations are generally fruitless unless accompanied by an educational program which motivates the individual to receive care for his health problem and to make the examination a satisfying experience.

Blanchard (1) reported that students have reacted to the usual school medical examination by family physicians as well as school physicians with such comments as "The doctor was in too much of a hurry," "He only listened to my heart," "They aren't interested to ask you any questions," "We never know what the doctor thinks about us."

The draft findings have helped to awaken the family physician to his responsibilities in health guidance which may eventually improve the health examination of the school child. Dunham (2), writing of the experience and impressions of a rural examining physician, admitted the physician has not measured up to his potentialities as a source of health education. Wilson (30) stated that the most effective results were obtained in the health service program where it was integrated with effective health teaching. The educational opportunities in the health service program have been described (28). The term "health counseling" has been more widely used to suggest the opportunity in the school for guidance and interpretation to the family and the student concerning the individual pupil's health needs. Leonard (8) has reported her counseling experience with adolescents.

This educational and counseling aspect is the important problem in school health service according to Strang and Smiley (22). Also, it has been emphasized by the Educational Policies Commission in its report *Education for ALL American Youth* (14). What is accomplished for the health of the child, however, depends in great measure upon the interest and skill of the physicians of the community.

Powers (19), in reviewing medical problems of school children, has called attention to their emotional and behavior difficulties. He finds about one-third of school children seen in a pediatric clinic have complaints which are based upon nervous, mental, or emotional disease. The adequate study and treatment of such cases is beyond the individual physician, no matter how able and understanding. It requires the special skills of psychologists, psychiatrist, and special educational workers. Special services are required for vision, hearing, orthopedic, and cardiac problems as well as mental disorders.

The Teacher and the Health Service

Miller (12), Nyswander (18) and Harold and Hershey (5) have shown that the teacher can do a very effective job with respect to the health of her children in recognizing normal conditions, segregating deviations, and making judgments. This recognition of the teacher's front-line position in health service is not new. What is new is the research to validate the teacher's ability to serve in this capacity. These studies have had the effect of substantiating a thesis long held by students of school health service and of stimulating the preparation of teachers to aid them to observe the health of children. Several states (6, 7, 16, 17, 24), thru the cooperation of their education and health departments, have produced very useful materials to guide teachers. In-service training courses have been stimulated and offered

by some teacher-training institutions. One of the first leaders in school health service, James F. Rogers of the U. S. Office of Education, early understood the importance of the teacher as an integral part of school health service. His publication *What Every Teacher Should Know About the Physical Condition of Her Pupils* is a classic. For years it was the only material available in sufficient quantity to serve teachers as a guide in the health observation of their pupils. This publication (20) has been completely rewritten and reprinted in the light of modern developments in pediatrics and child care.

There has been needed, in addition to written material for teachers, visual aids to help them see the characteristics of good health and the early signs suggestive of ill health. The School Health Bureau of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has just released a colored film strip (11), which is the result of a three-year experiment to reproduce by color photography the characteristics of good health in children and some of the more common signs of illness or an under par condition. The film strip was photographed in the Children's Clinic of the New York Hospital—Cornell Medical Center and at the Hunter College Elementary School. The strip has been released to state departments of health and education, social agencies, parent-teacher associations, and school health authorities.

Growth and Development

Recent studies indicate that the period of adolescence is longer than was previously believed. Stuart (23) reported that it covers roughly the second half of the period of development. A contribution of distinction was the yearbook on adolescence (15), a critical summary of studies of individual development based on technics of investigation in physiology, physical measurement, psychology, and sociology by a group of distinguished contributors. Gesell and his associates (4) have done a somewhat similar study of the child from age five to ten. Meredith and Meredith (9) found the typical Toronto school boy aged 13 and 14 was taller in 1939 than was the boy of 1892 by nearly 9 centimeters, and the typical boy of 1923 was about midway between. The differences at all ages were in the same direction but to a less marked degree. Howard Meredith also found that school boys in the United States today, both white and Negro, are 6 to 8 percent taller and 12 to 15 percent heavier than were boys half a century ago (10). The causes for these evidences of increasing size with time call for further study, but they are doubtless related to differences in the incidence of illness in early life, to dietary habits, to habits of activity, and to other more obscure factors generally referred to as socio-economic.

Air Sanitation

The war greatly advanced knowledge of air sanitation. The problem of controlling respiratory diseases among troops in barracks led to study of

several promising methods of air purification, such as ultraviolet irradiation of the air, dust-suppressive measures, and the use of germicidal chemical vapors. The application of these technics to the control of communicable diseases in civilian life has great potentialities. Mudd (13) reviewed some of these possibilities. The only research published on the use of these measures in schools is the work of Wells, Wells, and Wilder (25) and by Wells and Wells (26), which relates to the use of ultraviolet light. These writers reported the successful control of chickenpox and measles when the source of the contagion was in the school. It is significant, however, that the authors were unsuccessful in controlling colds, presumably because there was adequate opportunity to contract the colds in unprotected environments outside the school. It should be emphasized that air sanitation for schools is still in the experimental stage. More study of the practical application of ultraviolet lights to schools as well as investigation of dust-suppressive measures and the germicidal sprays must be carried out before their value in the control of communicable disease among school children can be known.

Evaluation of Health Programs

A research project of interest is the study of health and physical education initiated in February 1944 by the joint staff of the New York State Education Department's Division of Research and Division of Health and Physical Education (17). This project seeks to answer two questions in each of the three areas of the program—school health service, health teaching, and physical education: (a) To what extent are the regulations pertaining to the school health program carried out in the schools of the state, outside the large cities? (b) What are the results, in terms of pupil outcomes, of different local programs? The answer to the second question required exploration in new areas of study, especially in regard to the level of pupil health, attitudes toward health, actual health behavior, and physical skills. In the search for indexes of pupil health status, special statistical technics were developed, which may become a useful administrative and supervisory tool.

A summary of the findings concerning the health service aspect of the program showed that the schools rather generally met the letter of specific laws and regulations. For example, all the schools employed a physician and each pupil was examined every year. But only 23 percent of the schools met the approved ratio of physician to pupil. In spite of the inadequacy of medical service in most of the schools, very little effort was made to supplement the school service by encouraging families to use their own physician for the child's health examination. Only 3 percent of the schools had private physician examinations for more than 10 percent of its pupils. School medical examination records were found inadequate as a source of information as to pupil health status.

Pupil health records were less regularly filled out with respect to recom-

mendations of the physician than with respect to defects found, still less with respect to treatments secured. In more than half the schools, the parts of the record dealing with a history of illness and teacher observations were not used at all. On the other hand, records of height and weight were used to derive two indexes: (a) a development level for age and (b) maintenance of body-build. The Wetzel Grid (27) method of recording height and weight was found helpful in demonstrating these relationships. An interesting but puzzling discovery was that absence for illness was higher in the schools with the best over-all health programs than in the schools with the poorest over-all programs, altho there was no significant difference between the two groups in percent of total absence.

Summary

War has once more called attention to the importance of fostering and protecting the welfare of children. Studies reveal that school medical examinations which have served as the cornerstone of the school health program leave much to be desired from a fact-finding as well as educational point of view. There is a growing awareness of the need for specialist services to provide more accurate detection of abnormalities. The necessity for closer working relationships between the school and the community treatment resources to achieve medical and dental care for children is apparent. It is evident, too, that better preparation of school health personnel is needed, including greater emphasis on the important role of the teacher in the health service program. With this heightened understanding must come a more vigorous and critical inquiry into current practice. No more complex field of research exists than school health, concerned as it is with the learning and the biological processes. No more challenging study invites the investigator because, thru the marriage of these two disciplines, should come new knowledge in the prevention of disease and the improvement of health.

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CHAPTER X

Contributions of Physical Education to Physical Fitness

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To HAVE meaning, research must be viewed against the background of the period from which it emerged. Only by so doing can the contributions of the last three years be presented in sufficiently discerning perspective to evaluate their educational significance.

The examination of large numbers of Selective Service registrants and the induction of the fit into the armed forces was followed not only by a study of rejections and their cause, but also by clarification of the physical and mental qualities necessary to meet the exacting manpower needs of war (17). The national neglect of health and fitness thus revealed, led in 1943 to the creation by executive order of a Committee on Physical Fitness functioning under the egis of the Federal Security Agency. To this action was subsequently added the support of organized medicine, thus, apathy and indifference were supplanted by widespread interest in the institution of corrective measures designed to reduce the time and effort required to bring the bodily development of inductees to a level adequate to meet the rigors of combat.

Immediate therapeutics took the form of war adaptations of physical activities too numerous to cite individually. Notable among these were the extensive introduction of military aquatics, vigorous conditioning exercises, and various forms of developmental combatives. The imagination and vigor that went into the initiation of these programs stands to the credit of the professional physical educator, even tho nothing in the literature gives demonstrable evidence of the military utility of the mass pedagogical experiment to which preinductees of school age were subjected.

Emphasis on the Biological Values of Exercise

The general physical education literature of the last three years divides writers into two clearly defined camps. First, those who have rallied to the defense of traditional peacetime activity programs with their emphasis on socio-psychologic objectives, disclaiming responsibility for the unfitness of America's youth and laying the blame on poorly trained leadership, inadequate facilities, overcrowded classes, insufficient time, and the indifference of controlling agencies. Others, not insensible to the significance of the success of military physical fitness and convalescent training and reconditioning programs, subjected the philosophies and technics of the last two decades to searching reexamination. From this scrutiny emerged a conviction that physical developmental needs had not been met by the programs and practices of prewar years, and that it is the inescapable basic concern of physical education to provide these needs.

The most fundamental indictment of prewar activity programs was directed at their dosage. Improvement in the prepotent functional components of fitness is achieved only as a result of disciplined training which is pitched at a level that strains capacity, and then grows progressively more severe as physiological adaptations augment speed, skill, strength, endurance, and power (20).

Evaluating Physical Fitness

Few areas in human biology are more complex than the quantitative assessment of physical fitness and the measurement of man's performance (6, 21, 22, 23). The need for such appraisement was defined by Cureton in the early years of the war (3). The methodology of selecting and validating test items which measure motor skill fitness is well known, but such tests had never before been applied so extensively to such large samples of medically fit individuals under such favorable experimental conditions (2, 12, 14). The exigencies of war gave rise to testing on an unprecedented scale.

So called functional or dynamic fitness has also been subjected to exhaustive study. This aspect of fitness requires measurement of the general efficiency of the body in the performance of strenuous work. Systematic study of this problem commenced in 1942 with the publication of two physiological criteria of considerable practical importance: first, *work index* = the duration of exercise in seconds — maximum pulse rate in beats per minute + the maximum lactate in mg./100 cc. of blood (7) ; and second, *index of fitness* = the duration of a standard exhausting exercise in seconds $\times$ 100, divided by 2 $\times$ the sum of the pulses in recovery (8). Between February 1942 and October 1944, Brouha and his associates published nineteen papers on the subject of dynamic fitness, six of which appear in Vol. XV of the *Yale Journal of Biology and Medicine*. The viewpoints of the group are in part epitomized in one of the final contributions of the series (4).

Measuring Effectiveness of Physical Activity Programs

The Brouha papers were concerned not only with measurement of the dynamic fitness of adolescents and young adults of both sexes, but also with the utilization of the objective criterion proposed in the assessment of the efficiency of physical activity programs. Prior to this, little had been done to determine whether biological effects purported to be the concomitants of exercise were actually produced. Others added similar information, unequivocally demonstrating the capacity of specially directed physical training programs to enhance both dynamic and motor fitness (3, 11, 24). Activities geared to the capacities of the mediocre yielded negative results in accord with the overload concept, or led to regression in fitness when administered to students with a high initial ability (15).

Wilbur (25) attempted to prove the superiority of the "sport" vs. the "apparatus" method of teaching.

New Areas of Activity

One of the most dramatic chapters in the recent history of war medicine is that written by those who contributed to the convalescent training and re-conditioning programs of our military hospitals (13, 18). Altho much of the evidence is purely clinical, empirical experience suggests that the recovery from disabling injury or disease may be significantly expedited by the judicious use of early and progressive exercise. Its benefits in the management of convalescence from rheumatic fever and primary atypical pneumonia are described in the literature (9, 16).

Writing on "the shape of things to come", Shea (19) sounded a thought-ful and realistic keynote for the future with stress on the principle of "practicalization," and stress on the lessening of emphasis on educational technic and socio-recreative objectives in activity programs. Altho the expedients of war need not be made the necessities of today, proper emphasis on vigorous conditioning activities should be continued. An ex-panding interest in the reconditioning of the handicapped and the deviate assures the continued concern of physical educators for participation in the comparatively new field of service to the sick, known as Physical Medicine (5, 10). Bilik (1) sounded a timely caution lest in their zeal physical educators encroach upon the practice of the healing art.

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CHAPTER XI

Relationships of Physical Education to Mental Health*

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Development of the general field of psychiatry, representing an evolution from "sorcery to science," has lead to a more careful evaluation and appreciation of the mental hygienic forces inherent in physical education. The increased interest in mental hygiene during war years has led to extensive discussion of the relationships of physical education to mental health but not to experimental work and clinical studies conducted under research methods. At this stage, however, it will be useful to review the ways in which physical education activities have been used to contribute to mental health: as preventive aids, as a therapeutic agent with particular attention to psychiatric concepts of play (24, 31, 34), and as adjuvants to medical treatment (29).

Psychiatric Concepts of Physical Education

For more than twenty-five years, significant contributions to a psychiatric concept of recreation and physical education and the psychotherapeutic values of physical activity have been made by Brush (4) and other investigators. Davis (9) has reviewed these contributions. More recently Menninger (24) pointed out the values of play activities in the treatment of psychotic patients.

A program of convalescent training in which physical recreational activities played an important motivational role in both physical and mental rehabilitation was described by Rusk and Taylor of the Army Air Forces (35). This use of physical activities became one of the most important therapeutic contributions of physical education developed in World War II. The broad developments in this field have been accompanied by increased specialization.

Medical Adjuvants

Physical and psychological specializations of physical educational activities have gained an important role as medical adjuvants. Notable strides have been made in the remedial as well as in the palliative aspects. Physical education has been incorporated in a modernized treatment of combat fatigue, psychoneurosis and psychosis, both civilian and war (16, 17, 20, 22, 27, 30, 33). Campbell and Davis (5) have reported in the *American Journal of Psychiatry* the operation of a highly diversified program of physical education for psychotic patients, its development, results, and

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* As this review is the first on this topic in this series, some references published earlier than 1943 are included

failures over a period of seventeen years. This report provides an historical résumé of physical education in its distinctive relationships to the treatment of the mentally sick.

Expanding Areas

The value of physical education activities as mental health aids and as psychotherapy have stressed the role of play as a psychological release from anxiety for psychoneurotic and psychotic conditions (8, 28, 34) and big muscle activity as a natural and extroverting activity, a means of inciting competition, promoting cooperation, modifying behavior, and providing satisfaction in achievement (1, 3, 10, 26, 36). Physical education contributes indirect motivational values, as well as direct reeducative technics (2, 26). The extension of educational activities into the community suggests numerous studies in socialization and resocialization in which physical education methods have become increasingly important (3, 23).

The use of physical education activities has also developed in the direction of child play analysis (1, 14, 18, 28), the psychological balance in work adjustment (25, 30, 31), and recreational therapy for the chronic alcoholic, in which physical education provides a distinctly valuable palliative (11).

Physical education in relationship to mental health has evolved from the physical to the psychological (4, 32), social (21), medical (29), psychosomatic (15, 20), resocializing (3, 10), and mental hygiene phases (6, 34)—each step in this process of evolution producing important contributions to the concept of treatment of the whole man.

The value of physical educational activities in "getting close to the mentally sick patient" in the development of empathy, has received considerable stress in psychiatric practice. Dr. Roy J. Hoskins, Director of Research, Memorial Foundation of Neuroendocrine Research, Harvard Medical School, states: "In the patients whom I have seen leave our hospitals in a state of remission, I have been more impressed with the improvement of their empathic capacity than with any other change" (19).

Trends and Future Needs

Physical education has significant and important potentialities in the prevention, diagnosis, treatment, and interpretation of mental illness. There is a need to deepen and broaden the social bases of play, and to provide psychiatric analyses and tests to afford a more scientific foundation for such psychiatric applications (24).

More specifically, there is a need to develop general spontaneity in play as basic material for psychological tests to be used in diagnosis and treatment, to develop further physical exercise specializations to meet the distinctive needs of various mental disease entities (12), and to develop under

direction of the psychiatrist specialized physical education activities for psychoneurotic and psychotic patients receiving electric shock, insulin therapy, and other drastic treatments, after the patient becomes more accessible to social and socializing physical activities, as a result of treatment. These uses would bring physical education into a highly specialized psychiatric field, which requires technical training as well as the closest liaison between the physical exercise therapist and the psychiatrist.

These growing relationships of physical exercise to increasing specialization in psychiatry, involving a significant increase in the range and nature of activities, points to the necessity of intensive training (10). Dr. Paul R. Hawley, chief medical director of the Veterans Administration, and Dr. Donald A. Covalt, assistant medical director, Medical Rehabilitation, have organized a special school at the Winter General Hospital, Topeka, Kansas, under Dr. Karl Menninger for this purpose. Briefly, the combined psychiatric staffs of the Menninger Clinic and Winter General Hospital, with the aid of specialists in physical education, are presenting a course of instruction which includes: a study of the patient as an individual; the modification of physical activities to meet his distinctive needs; a study of various disease entities in relationship to interest and capacity for physical activity; and technics for observing physical and mental reactions.

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